HIGH SCHOOL GRAMMAR

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A

HIGH SCHOOL GRAMMAR

DEALING WITH

THE SCIENCE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, THE HISTORY OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH, THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE CHANGES THESE HAVE UNDERGONE, AND PRESENT USAGE RESPECTING FORMS IN DISPUTE

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PREFACE

THIS is a historical and scientific grammar. It has been written to supplement "Graded Lessons in English" and "Higher Lessons in English,"—to help the student to a technical knowledge of the language which they do not attempt to give.

The scope of the present work has forced us to pay far less attention here to the sentence as a unit. We still believe that a patient study of the sentence is essential to an intelligent knowledge of the parts of speech, to a correct use of grammatical forms, and to an acquaintance with the general principles of discourse. We still believe that such study simplifies translation, and is the best logical discipline available for the student; that the greatest good to be attained through the study of English grammar is not skill in parsing, but skill in composing; and that the thorough analysis of all kinds of sentences is, more than any other one thing, helpful to the student in constructing such sentences. This conviction is embodied in our former works.

But marking time is not marching on. In "Higher Lessons" great emphasis is laid upon the sentence as the

unit of thought, and upon its rigorous analysis for the sake of subsequent synthesis. This is ample reason for laying little or no stress upon it in a treatise designed for the student at a later stage of his linguistic training. The purpose of this work neither requires nor permits us to repeat, except in brief review, matter so fully presented in the preceding books.

The purpose of this book has forced us to do wholly or more fully here what was left undone, or but partly done, in our former books. In particular, it has forced us to pay great attention to the growth of our alphabet from its scanty beginnings; to the development of words from roots; to the gains of our vocabulary; to the influence of the Norman-French upon spelling and pronunciation, and upon the structure of the sentence; to the dropping of inflections, and to the forms which those that survive have assumed; to the terminology that historical continuity calls for; and, in general, to the tracing of the parts of speech from their sources down.

More particularly, the purpose of this book has enforced earnest attention to the philosophy of the subjunctive mode and its employment in English; to the distinction between the essential and the incidental offices of tense; to the sequence of tenses; to the classification of verbs; and to the demand for a distinct name for the verb-forms in *-ing* that have a nounal nature.

For any departure here from the method in which some

of these subjects were formerly presented, reasons are given in the body of the work. The more significant of these changes in treatment were all distinctly foreshadowed in "Higher Lessons" (Revised Edition, 1896) — as supplementary to which this book may be used.

We are most fortunate in having had for this treatise our former critic, Professor Francis A. March, the eminent grammarian and philologist. What his work upon these pages, on their way through the press, has been, no one need be told.

A closing word is personal. One of the authors of this grammar, Alonzo Reed, died as the book was approaching completion. But he lived to write a portion of the text and to criticise minutely the rest of it. His wisdom is apparent in the plan of the work; and his ripe scholarship is seen in every chapter of this, the last, effort of our joint labor.

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NOTE TO THE TEACHER

THE historical part of this work is largely in foot-notes. Presuming that the student is equal to what is there said, we have asked questions and given exercises upon these notes. But the most difficult of these, and the questions upon them, should be omitted when the classes are not ready for them.

CHAPTER I

LETTERS

We are intelligent beings; we perceive, we know, we think. We are social beings as well; we communicate our thought. For this communication language is needed.

Language is chiefly verbal — **spoken words** and **written words.** Spoken words are made up of sounds; written words, of characters representing the sounds.

Spoken words were used early, for men must early have needed words to aid gesture in the expression of wants; written words, recording thought for the thinker's contemplation, or for transmission to others, came into being later. Everything needful for spoken words — the air, the lungs, and the organs of the throat and mouth — was at hand; the characters used in writing; and the materials and instruments for making them had to be prepared.

The importance of writing we appreciate; our remote ancestors did not and could not.

The characters composing written words are called **Letters.** The letters of a language are its **Alphabet.**

Vowels and Consonants. — The sounds of words are pro-

duced by air expelled from the lungs, and modified by the larynx, nose, palate, tongue, teeth, and lips. If the vocal cords are kept apart, and the air passes through the mouth or nostrils with little interference, we have simple **breath**; if the cords are brought together, and the expelled air makes them vibrate, we have **voice**.

If the mouth-passage is kept open and the voice rushes through without audible friction, we have a **vowel sound**; if the mouth-passage is narrowed, and the air, slightly voiced or wholly voiceless, is impeded so as to cause perceptible friction, or is completely stopped, we have a **consonant sound**.

Vowels and **Consonants** are the terms ambiguously applied (1) to the sounds, and (2) to the letters representing the sounds.

In producing the various sounds, the mouth-organs occupy different relative positions. At each, the mouth-passage takes a distinct shape; and, as the shape changes, the sound changes.

This change of shape and of sound is seen especially in the production of vowels. As the possible changes in the mouth-passage are many, the possible vowels are many; even in English, where the vowel sounds are numerous, we do not make all that we might.

Vowels and consonants stand side by side in almost every word, and in almost every **syllable** — that is, so much of a word as is uttered by a single impulse of the voice. The vowel is the **tonic element** of words spoken or sung.

The Origin of Letters. — The earliest kinds of writing were pictorial. Men tried to place before each other their conceptions of things by rude pictures of them. These pictures, called **hieroglyphs**, differed from our words (1) in that they had a natural connection — resemblance — with visible objects, while words have such connection only with

sounds; and (2) in that they represented things, and conceptions of things, without reference to their names, while words represent sounds, which may be the name of many objects. These hieroglyphs differed from our letters still more than from our words.

By what steps these hieroglyphs became (1) the names of the things they once pictured, (2) the syllables of the names, (3) the consonantal element of the syllables, and (4) the separate vowels and consonants of the syllables, is not fully known. But scholars agree that alphabets had their beginning in hieroglyphs, proper or symbolic, and that these gradually lost their pictorial character and became mere signs of speech-sounds — genuine, if not perfect, alphabets.

The Primitive Sounds. — A feature of our linguistic family is, that everything in it has developed; words have come from roots; complex sentences have grown from simple; grammar has added inflections; sounds, and the letters representing them, have increased.

The scheme of articulations in the theoretic parent-speech of the Indo-Europeans contains but three vowels,[1] a, i, and u, with

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[1] Said by Professor Whitney, in 1867, in his *Language and the Study of Language*, virtually repeated in 1875 in his *Life and Growth of Language*, and, so far as known, his latest deliverance on this point.

Professor Sievers, *Encyc. Britannica*, Vol. XVIII., p. 788, says that the Aryan had five vocalic sounds — a, e, i, o, and u, besides diphthongs — and more consonants than Professor Whitney allows.

If *Aryan* here means *Indo-European*, as elsewhere in the article it does, the "doctors disagree."

the sounds of **a**, **e**, and **oo** in *far*, *the*, and *boot;* and but **twelve consonants**, **b**, **d**, **g**, **h**, **k**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **p**, **r**, **s**, and **t**—the **h** not a separate letter but closely combining with **t**, **d**, **p**, **g**, and **k**.

The oldest alphabet used by Indo-Europeans—the Sanskrit—has forty-seven letters, fourteen of them vowels, and thirty-three consonants.

The Alphabets from which the English is derived.—The English alphabet came from the Latin; the Latin, from the Greek; the Greek, from the Phœnician; and it is thought that the earlier forms of the Phœnician were devised by the Egyptians.

The **Phœnician Alphabet** consisted of **twenty-two characters**—all consonantal, though three of them could stand for the vowels **a**, **i**, and **u**. The **Greeks** borrowed most of these twenty-two, used many of them without material change of form or value, converted some into vowels, added others, and formed thus their alphabet of **twenty-four letters.**[1]

The **Latin Alphabet** was taken from the Greek used by the Greek colonists in Sicily and western Italy. In their forms, its letters[2] do not differ greatly from the Greek; in their names, they do.

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[1] "In the Greek alphabet," says Professor Whitney, "for the first time . . . we find realized what we cannot but regard as the true ideal of a mode of writing—namely, that it be simply a faithful representation of spoken speech, furnishing a visible sign for every audible sound that the voice utters, and not attempting to distinguish any class of sounds as of more importance than any other."

[2] By Greek and Latin letters we here mean only **capital** letters; the small, or **cursive**, letters are of mediæval growth.

All but **K** of the fifteen characters for the original Indo-European "articulations" the Latin took from the Greek.

By a slight diacritical mark, the old Latin **C**, which stood for the Greek **k** and **g**, was converted into **G**. **C** then marked the **k**-sound alone; and **G**, the **g**-sound.

F is the old Greek digamma.

Q is a form of an old Phœnician letter used in early Greek but dropped in later.

V is only another form of **U**.

X was taken early from the Greek; **Y** and **Z**, later.

The vowels **E** and **O** are from the Greek, and are both Phœnician. **E** goes back to an Egyptian hieroglyph; **O** does not.

The English Alphabet. — The Greek **K**, rejected by the Romans, has been restored to use in modern English.

J is a recent variant of **I**. **I** and **J** were treated as the same letter as late as Todd's Johnson's Dictionary, 1818.

W — double **U** or double **V** — has come into English since 1066.

The three letters — **K**, **J**, and **W** — plus the Latin twenty-three form the **twenty-six** in **English**.

The oldest form of the English is Anglo-Saxon. The characters first used by the Saxons were called **runes**. On the Christianization of the Saxons their alphabet perished and the Latin was adopted. But to denote sounds not in the Latin — that of **th** in *thick* and that of **w** — two runes

were retained. For the **th** in our *that*, the Saxons created a letter by crossing their **d**, making it **ð**.

Though this new Saxon alphabet was the one handed on to us, not all of our letters are Saxon. We have seen that **J** and **W** are not; and **Q**, **V**, and **Z** are not.

THE VOWELS OF OUR ALPHABET

The great division of our letters is into Vowels and Consonants. The **vowels** are **a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, and **u**; the consonants are the remaining letters except **w**[1] and **y**.

The International Dictionary assigns eight sounds to **a**, five to **e**, three to **i**, four to **o**, and six to **u**.

The diacritical marks there given to the vowels and the key-words illustrating the vowel sounds are these: **ā** in *ale*, **ȧ** in *senate*, **â** in *care*, **ă** in *am*, **ä** in *arm*, **à** in *ask*, **a** in *final*, and **ạ** in *alt*; **ē** in *eve* (first *e*), **ė** in *event* (first *e*), **ĕ** in *end*, **ẽ** in *fern*, and **e** in *recent* (second *e*); **ī** in *ice*, **ỉ** in *idea*, **ĭ** in *ill*; **ō** in *old*, **ȯ** in *obey*, **ô** in *orb*, and **ŏ** in *odd*; **ū** in *use*, **ṵ** in *unite*, **ụ** in *rude*, **u** in *full*, **ŭ** in *up*, and **û** in *urn*.

Classification[2] **of the Vowels.** — In forming the vowels there is always a "place of constriction," where some part

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[1] Peile, *Encyc. Britannica*, p. 1, says, "In sounding the **i** (the long **e**-sound) the tongue is raised so as almost to touch the palate, the passage left being so close that, if the tongue was suffered for a second to rest on the palate, there would be not **i** but **y**; and a similar relation exists between **u** and **w**. This is commonly expressed by calling **w** and **y** semivowels."

[2] The material used in this classification of the vowels and consonants is largely taken from the exhaustive article, *Guide to Pronunciation*, in *The International Dictionary*.

of the tongue comes almost into touch with the throat behind or the mouth-roof above. This constriction divides the oral cavity into two connected cavities.

I. If this place is **near the base of the tongue,** we have the **Open-throat Vowel ä** — the primary[1] sound — and its variant **ȧ.**

II. If the constriction is made by **arching** up the **tongue toward** the **hard palate,** we have the **Front Vowels, ā, â, ă, ȧ, ĕ, ĭ, ū,** and **u̇.**

III. If the constriction is made by **arching** the **tongue** at the **soft palate,** the membranous curtain at the rear of the mouth, we have the **Back Vowels, a̤, ō, ŏ, ȯ, ṳ,** and **ṵ.**

IV. If the passage at the place of constriction is not, as with the front and back vowels it is, concave on the palate and convex on the tongue, but concave on both, we have the **Mixed Vowels, ẽ, û,** and **ŭ.**[2]

Any change in the vowel-chamber changes the sound. In forming ī, for instance, the mouth is closing; hence the initial and the final element of the sound are unlike. The

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[1] In forming this vowel, Peile says: "The whole channel from the glottis . . . to the lips . . . is thoroughly open. All vowels except ä are pronounced with a certain contraction of the organs. . . . *It* has absolutely no relation to any consonant; it is the one primary, essential vowel. The farther we trace back the history of the language . . . the more nearly, if not entirely, does it become the one starting-point from which all other vowel-sound is derived."

See also on this sound *The Elements of English Pronunciation*, second series of Professor Whitney's *Oriental Linguistic Studies.* Here, too, is Professor Whitney's instructive estimate of the percentages of the different sounds of the vowels and consonants used in our literature.

[2] All that is here said of these vowel-sounds may easily be verified in making them.

sound begins as that of **ä**, or something near it, and ends as that of **ĭ**. It is not, then, a simple[1] sound.

THE CONSONANTS OF OUR ALPHABET

Classification. — I. Classifying Consonants with regard to **Obstruction** in the mouth, we have (1) those in which the breath is only **checked**, and (2) those in which it is **stopped**.

In the (1) class, called **continuous**, **fricative**, are (*a*) the **liquids**, **l**, **m**, **n**, and **r**, — of which **m** and **n** are **nasals**, because the checked breath escapes through the nostrils; (*b*) the **sibilants**, **c** soft (as in *cent*), **s**, **s** (= **z**, as in *is*), **s** (= **sh**, as in *sure*), **s** (= **zh**, as in *vision*), **z**, **z** (=**zh**, as in *seizure*), and **x** (= **z**) when beginning words; (*c*) the **spirants**, **f**, **g** soft (as in *gin*), **j** (= **g** soft), **v**, and **w** and **y** when consonants.

In the (2) class, called **mutes**, are **b**, **c**[3] hard (as in *cat*), **d**, **g** hard (as in *go*), **h**,[2] **k**, **p**, **q**,[3] **t**, **x**[3] (= **ks**, as in *wax*). The **x** (= **gz**, as in *exact*), falls into both of these classes.

II. Classifying consonants with regard to **Intonation**, we have (1) voiced consonants, or **sonants**, **subvocals**; and (2) voiceless consonants, or **surds**.[4]

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[1] We call it a **diphthong**. The **ā**, **ē**, **ō**, **ū**, **ou**, (as in *out*), and **oi** (as in *oil*), also are diphthongs. In pronouncing a diphthong, the voice makes what is called a **glide** — a transitional sound produced by the change of the mouth-organs in passing (1) from the beginning to the end of a diphthong, (2) from consonant to vowel or from vowel to consonant in a syllable, or (3) from one component to the other of a double consonant.

[2] The **h** is unique. It is made through a vowel-chamber for the following vowel, and with some rustle all along the mouth-passage. It is usually called an **aspirate**.

[3] The letters **c**, **q**, and **x** are superfluous. The sounds of **c** are those of **k** and **s**; **q** = **k** (**qu** = **kw**); and **x** (1) (as in *wax*) = **ks**, (2) (as in *exact*) = **gz**, and (3) when beginning words = **z**.

[4] Every surd except **h** bears a noteworthy relation to some sonant — **c** soft to **z**, **c** hard to **g** hard, **f** to **v**, **k** to **g** hard, **p** to **b**, **q** to **g** hard, **s** to **z**, **s** (= **sh**) to **z** (= **zh**), **t**

In the (1) class, **sonants**, are **b**, **d**, **g** soft, **g** hard, **j**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **r**, **s** (= **z**), **s** (= **zh**), **v**, **w** when a consonant, **x** (= **z**), **x** (= **gz**), **y** when a consonant, **z**, and **z** (= **zh**).

In the (2) class, **surds**, are **c** soft, **c** hard, **f**, **h**, **k**, **p**, **q**, **s**, **s** (= **sh**), **t**, and **x** (= **ks**).

III. Classifying consonants with regard to their **Place of Articulation**, we have (1) those with this on the lips, and called **labials**; (2) those with this on or near the front upper teeth, and called **dentals**; (3) those with this at the hard palate, and called **palatals**; and (4) those with this at the root of the tongue, and called **gutturals**.

In the (1) class, **labials**, are **b**, **m**, **p**, and **w** when a consonant.

In the (2) class, **dentals**, are **c** soft, **d**, **n**, **r** (as in *string*), **s**, **s** (=**z**), **t**, **x** (= **z**), and **z**.

The **f** and **v**, made by the under lip and the upper teeth, are a union of (1) and (2) and are called **labio-dentals**.

In the (3) class, **palatals**, are **g** soft, **j**, **l**, **r** (as in *roar*), **s** (= **sh**), **s** (= **zh**), **y** when a consonant, and **z** (=**zh**).

In the (4) class, **gutturals**, are **c** hard, **g** hard, **k**, **q**, **x** (= **ks**), and **x** (= **gz**).

The **h** has no fixed place of articulation—the place varying with that of the letter to which it is joined.[1]

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to **d**, and **x** (= **ks**) to **x** (= **gz**). The mouth-organs are in the same position in making the letters of each pair; the **surd sound** in any pair is the **sonant sound** in that pair **minus all intonation**.

[1] Thus far single consonants. A word respecting **digraphs**—combinations, each, of two consonants to express a single sound. The digraphs are **ch**, **gh**, **ph**, **sh**, **th**, and **ng**.

The digraph **ch** (as in *church*) is the surd corresponding to the sonant **j**, and is a **continuous, surd palatal**; **ch** (as in *machine*) = **s** (as in *sure*), and is classed with it; and **ch** (as in *chasm*) = **k**, and is classed with it.

THE IMPERFECTION OF OUR ALPHABET

A perfect alphabet has as many letters as articulate sounds, and each letter always stands for the same sound. In a language with such an alphabet, one knows from the word as he hears it in what letters to write it; and from the word as he sees it, with what sounds to pronounce it. The English alphabet is both **redundant** and **defective**.

I. **Redundant** (1) in that **c**, **q**, and **x** have no sounds not represented by **s**, **k**, and **g**; and **j** and **z** are duplicated by **g** soft and by **s** (in *is* and *vision*).

Redundant (2) in that some letters, while having each a sound exclusively its own, have also a sound or sounds in common. For instance, **a** and **o**, as in *what* and *not*, have ŏ in common; **a** and **e**, as in *say* and *prey*, have ā in common; **i** and **e**, as in *pique* and *eve*, have ē in common; and **o** and **u**, (1) as in *do* and *rude*, have ṵ in common; (2) as in *wolf* and *full*, have ụ in common; and (3) as in *son* and *sun*, have ŭ in common.

Redundant (3) in that some of its letters — **a**, **o**, and **u**, etc. — are sometimes proper diphthongs, each a combination of two clearly pronounced vowel sounds.

II. **Defective** (1) in that it has twenty-four vowel sounds and only five letters to represent them; and (2) in that it sometimes takes two letters to represent a single sound — the **th** and the **ng**, for example.

The **gh** (as in *ghost*) = **g** hard, and the **gh** (as in *cough*) = **f**; and the two are classed with **g** hard and **f**.

The **ph** (as in *philosophy*) = **f**, and the **ph** (in *diphthong*, as pronounced by some) = **p**; and the two are classed with **f** and **p**.

The **sh** (as in *shine*) = **s** (as in *sure*), and is classed with it.

The **th** (as in *breath*) is a **continuous**, **surd lingua-dental**, corresponding to the **sonant lingua-dental th** in *breathe*.

The **ng** (as in *breathing*), is a **continuous**, **sonant**, **nasal guttural**.

THE SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Language — Spoken and Written. Letters and their Origin. The Alphabets from which the English descends. The Fourfold Classification of Vowels. The Threefold Classification of Consonants. The Imperfections of our Alphabet.

Questions. — What is our need of language? Relation of written words to spoken? Which the earlier and why? Letters, what? An alphabet, what? Difference between breath and voice? between a vowel sound and a consonant? Syllables, what? Hieroglyphs, what? and how differing from words and letters? What sounds and letters in the primitive Indo-European? Trace the succession of alphabets. The peculiarity of the Phœnician? The relation of the Greek to the Phœnician? What English letters not in Latin? not in Anglo-Saxon? The Anglo-Saxon characters called what? How many sounds has each English vowel? What is meant by "place of constriction"? How do we have four classes of vowels? Give, and justify, their names. What vowel sound is primary? What does Peile say of it? A semivowel, what? a diphthong? a glide? Grouped with regard to obstruction, what are the two classes of consonants? Into what classes is one of these subdivided? Grouped in regard (1) to intonation, and (2) to place of articulation, what classes are there? What consonants are superfluous? and what letters do they duplicate? What consonant is an aspirate? What is unchanged in forming the surds and the sonants pairing them? In what respect do the surd and the sonant differ in sound? Digraphs, what? Give and class them. A perfect alphabet, what?

Exercises. — Give the various sounds of the several vowels, tell into which class — (1) open throat, (2) front, (3) back, or (4) mixed — each falls. Give the sounds of the consonants, and justify the division (1) into continuous and mute, (2) into sonants and surds, and (3) into labials, dentals, palatals, and gutturals.

CHAPTER II

WORDS

The First Language Used. — In communication, verbal language is now mainly employed. But the cries and other vocal sounds of the infant and the undeveloped man were accompanied by a **Natural Language** of facial expression, of attitude, and of gestures by the hands and arms; and it is thought that artificial language at first developed most rapidly in signs addressed to the eye, or gesture language.

But such language had its limitations — it could not have been used in the dark, when opaque objects or long distance intervened, or when the hands were otherwise engaged. The superiority of the vocal muscles to all others for communicating thought was eventually seen, and the voice came to supersede in large measure all other agencies of expression. But gesture language, though supplanted, is not extinct; we resort to it now to reënforce verbal.

The First Words. — The first words connoted wants, as hunger; and denoted things wanted, as food. Words denoting sensible things connote relations, actions, and qualities. All that we know, and can tell, of external things even now, is their relations, actions, and qualities.

Further, our ancestors could not have had — for we our-

selves have not—words expressive each of all the acts or qualities of material substances or of persons. Most words are found to denote, etymologically, only special features of things. By association, many words have come to stand for things as wholes, for our complexes of ideas respecting things.

Now, whether the first words were (1) **imitative,** or (2) **expressive** of the **feelings** aroused by things, or (3) **utterances accompanying gestures** to call attention to things, or (4) originated in all these ways, it is reasonably certain that they were prevailingly **monosyllabic**—such as we now appropriately call **roots.** We do not come across these now because they were spoken, and perished in the speaking; nobody knows how long it was before spoken words were first written, nor how long after words were written before those which have reached us were written.

When any one, recalling the vocal signs made in directing his attention to particular things, used these signs himself for like purposes, and was understood in their use, then **verbal language began.** Using the vocal signs to denote the things, they could now speak of the things when away from them and when gestures of direction could not be made.

Roots.—In resolving Indo-European words into their elements we come even yet upon what are evidently roots, if not the primitive roots; but the oldest Indo-European language is modern compared with primeval speech. These

roots are mostly monosyllabic though many of them are still further resolvable.

Resolvable, for instance, may be separated into **solv**, **re**, and **able**. **Solv** gives the word its fundamental meaning, and gathers about itself, as nucleus, the modifying prefix **re**[1] and the suffix **able**.

The suffixes are divided into **derivative**[2] and **inflectional**[2] **suffixes** — the derivative being those that mark the part of speech to which the words having them belong; and the inflectional being the terminations that denote the number, case, person, or other grammatical modification of the words having them.

The English Vocabulary Composite. — The words in English were at first mostly of one stock. They were Anglo-Saxon, and belonged to the Low German — a branch of the Teu-

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[1] Max Müller says, "What we now call a noun was originally **a kind of sentence**, consisting of the root, and some so-called suffix which pointed to something of which that root was predicated."

Professor Whitney says, "The endings of declension and conjugation and the prefixes and suffixes of derivation were originally independent elements, words which were first collocated with other words, and then entered into combination, and were more or less fused, with the latter, losing their primitive form and meaning, and becoming mere signs of modification and relation; hence the historically traceable beginnings of speech were simple roots — not parts of speech even, and still less forms."

Professor Otto Jespersen of Copenhagen, while, in his *Progress of Language*, conceding that this is the theory prevalent among the leading linguists, and while conceding that some inflectional forms have arisen in this way, nevertheless says, "But when the inference is, that *all* flectional forms are to be explained in this manner, and that here we have the key to flexion in general, great exception may be taken."

[2] *Truths* illustrates both classes of suffixes. The **th** is derivative, making a noun out of the root **tru**; and **-s** is inflectional, marking the plurality of the noun *truth*.

tonic, or Germanic, member of the great Indo-European family of languages. They formed the vocabulary of the tribes that, in the fifth century, left their home on the coast north of the Elbe, invaded Britain, subdued the Kelts inhabiting the island, and settled there. They and their language came to be called *Englisc*, 'English'; and the island, *Engla land*, 'England.'

In the eleventh century, these Anglo-Saxon, or English, conquerors were in turn conquered by the Northmen, or Normans, a Scandinavian people that early in the tenth century had secured a footing about the mouth of the Seine.

Their language had been nearly like the English but they had learned French in Normandy. This was folk-Latin — sprinkled with a few Keltic and Teutonic words — as learned by the Kelts and Franks of Gaul from Roman soldiers and colonists settled among them. As the Normans spoke it, it was called *Norman-French.*

There have been other infusions of Latin into English, and infusions of languages other than Latin; but only the Norman-French concerns us here.

THE EFFECTS OF THE NORMAN CONQUEST UPON OUR VOCABULARY

1. **It Brought New Words into English.** — These came (1) to supply the demands of the blended peoples for terms to denote things and express thoughts which the English

before the Conquest did not have, and therefore had no words to denote.

They came (2) to fill the gap caused by the loss of words which the English before the Conquest did have, but, in the centuries of depression and degradation after the Conquest, had lost.[1]

They came (3) as contestants for the places already filled by the O.E. words. In this contest they sometimes supplanted the O.E. words; oftener, they got a footing, and shared the ground with the O.E.[2] words; but oftener still they were unable to get even a footing in the language.

2. **It Broke up the Habit of Compounding Words.** — Since the Conquest little attempt has been made to meet the demand for new words by compounding the old material. Words still combine, but with an awkwardness that comes from disuse of habit. Our words have lost the flexibility that distinguished them as it still distinguishes the German.

3. **It Changed the Order of Words in the Sentence.** — The old German order is kept in this translation of a complex sentence from the *A.-S. Chronicle:* —

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[1] In *The English Language*, Professor Lounsbury estimates this loss at more than one-half of the O.E. vocabulary; and Dr. J. A. H. Murray, *Encyc. Britannica*, Vol. VIII., article *English Language*, says, "The practical vocabulary shrank to a fraction of its former extent."

[2] It is customary to divide English into **Periods**, and to give separate names to the divisions. From 450 to 1100 or 1150, it is called **Old English**; from 1100 or 1150 to 1500 or 1550, **Middle English**; and from 1500 or 1550 on, **Modern English** — respectively abbreviated to **O.E.**, **M.E.**, and **Mn.E.**

"They all against the king were fighting until they him slain had."

But when we read Alfred or Wyclif or any contemporary of Chaucer, we see that the English had changed the German order, and given proportion and unity to the sentence; though we may not find the light and easy movement so characteristic of our modern prose.

4. **It Changed the Spelling and the Sounds of O.E. Words.** — The changes in orthography and orthoëpy have been mostly along the lines of euphony. The law of phonetic change, illustrated here as elsewhere, is one springing out of the tendency to do things with the least effort — is the law of economy.

O.E. Combinations. — The O.E. combined **c** and **n**, **h** and **t**, **c** and **g**, **h** and **n**, **h** and **l**, **h** and **r**, **w** and **r**, and **w** and **l** — as *cnāwan*,[1] *eahta*, *licgan*, *hnīgan*, *hlanc*, *hring*, *wrītan*, and *wlanc*; and then pronounced both consonants. During their long stay in France, the Normans exchanged their own harsh speech for one more mellifluous; and when they united with the English, they would not, or could not, utter such combinations. We owe it to them that we are not driven to these arduous vocal feats. If such combinations exist to-day, the sound of both letters is changed, or one letter is silent.

The change to greater ease is seen in both vowels and consonants, and consists oftentimes in bringing forward the place of constriction, or of mute closure.

Vowels. — O.E. **ā** (our **ä**) has changed (1) to our **ō** — *bān*, *stān*, *hām* becoming *bone*, *stone*, *home*; (2) to **oe** and **oa** (our **ō**) — *dā* and *āc* becoming *doe* and *oak*; and (3) to **ŏ** — *hāt* becoming *hot*.

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[1] For the pronunciation of these words, see table at the end of this chapter.

O.E. ō (our ō) has changed to **oo**—*dōm*, *blōd*, and *gōd* becoming *doom*, *blood*, and *good*.

O.E. ū (our ṵ) has changed (1) to **ou**—*hūs*, *rūh*, *uncūð* becoming *house*, *rough*, and *uncouth*; (2) to **ow**—*brūn* and *nū* becoming *brown* and *now*; and (3) to **oo**—*rūm* becoming *room*.

O.E. ē (our ā) has changed to **ee**—*mēd* and *fēt* becoming *meed* and *feet*.

O.E. ǣ (like first **e** in *there*) has changed (1) to **ee**, (2) to **ea** (=ee), and (3) to **ai**—*grǣdig*, *hǣð*, and *hǣr* becoming *greedy*, *heath*, and *hair*.

Consonants.—The consonantal change effected by Norman influence is the **palatalization** of the **gutturals**; when not palatalized, the guttural may drop out; when not dropped, it may become silent, or turn to a vowel or semi-vowel.

The guttural **g**, initial, medial, and final, may (1) drop out; (2) change to **y**; (3) to **w**; (4) to **i**; (5) to **g** soft—*genōg* and *stigel* becoming *enough* and *stile*; *geard*, *eāge*, and *weg* becoming *yard*, *eye*, and *way*; *fugol* and *boga* becoming *fowl* and *bow*; *regen* and *hægel* becoming *rain* and *hail*; *gim* and *gigant* becoming *gem* and *giant*.

The guttural **h** may (1) drop out, (2) become **gh** (=**f**), and (3) unite with **g** and the **gh** become silent—*seolh* becoming *seal*; *rūh* and *tōh* becoming *rough* and *tough*; and *miht* and *niht* becoming *might* and *night*.

The guttural **c** may change in sound (1) to the sibilant **s**; and (2) to the palatal **ch**—*ceder* and *circul* becoming *cedar* and *circle*; and *cild* and *cin*, *child* and *chin*.

The guttural **sc** changes to the sibilant **sh**—*sceāp* and *fisc* becoming *sheep* and *fish*.

Some changes have little to do with euphony — that of **hw** to **wh**, **cw** to **qu**, and **c** to **k** — *hwīl*, *cwēn*, and *cyning* becoming *while*, *queen*, and *king*. Letters have changed places — *bridd*, *forst*, and *fersc* becoming *bird*, *frost*, *and fresh*.

The orthographic effects have not weakened the language as a whole, as they have in modern Greek, for example, in which six of the old vowels and diphthongs have weakened to our **ee**.

The strong back sounds have changed to middle; the weak front tones, to strong back diphthongs.

5. **It has Stripped Words of their Inflections.** — O.E. (1) indicated the number, case, and gender of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, and (2) marked the person, number, tense, and mode of verbs by endings.[1] The grammatical relations of these great parts of speech were shown by the terminations ticketed upon them.

Mn.E. indicates all these modifications and grammatical relations by separate words — **auxiliary verbs**, **adverbs**, and **prepositions**, by **phrases**, and by **position** in the sentence.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Natural Language. The First Words. Roots. Prefixes. Suffixes. Composition of our English Vocabulary. Fivefold Effect of the Norman Conquest upon Early English Vocabulary.

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[1] What these inflectional endings were, when and in what order they fell away, and what ones remain will be seen when the several parts of speech are taken up.

Questions. — Natural language, what? When first used? Its limitations? Use now? What things first denoted by words? What properties of things? By association, words stand for what now? Theories respecting the origin of words? Why unable to recover the first words? Verbal language began when? Roots, what? Most words composed of what? Prefixes, what? Suffixes, what? Relation of both to the fundamental root? Two kinds of suffixes? The office of each? Illustrate with *truths*. What does Whitney say of the fundamental root; and of prefixes and suffixes? Wherein does Jespersen assent? dissent? Original element of our English vocabulary, what? The story of the Anglo-Saxon Conquest? Of the Norman Conquest? Normans, who? Norman-French, what? What three things did Norman-French words come into English to do? What two of these did they do? In what measure did they do the third? The periods of English? Names and abbreviations? What per cent of the O.E. words never came into M.E. and Mn.E.? What O.E. verbal habit did the invasion of Norman-French words affect? and to what extent? How affect the O.E. order of words? Illustrate. How affect the spelling and pronunciation of O.E. words? What O.E. combinations did these Norman-French words break up? What is true of such combinations as remain? The change effected in both vowels and consonants is of what kind? Gutturals became what? When not palatalized, the guttural did what? What consonant changes, having little to do with euphony, took place? What effects upon O.E. inflections did the Norman-French have? How do we now indicate the grammatical relations of words?

Exercises. — Study the sounds of the O.E. letters in the following tables, pronounce the O.E. words found on the preceding pages of this chapter, and verify what is there said of the changes in their vowel and consonant sounds which O.E. words underwent in becoming Mn.E. — changes mainly due to Norman-French influence. Looking to the key-words on the next page for the sounds of the italicized letters in the list of O.E. examples, pronounce these letters and then the words containing them. The consonant sounds are given below.

APPROXIMATE PRONUNCIATION OF THE OLD ENGLISH ALPHABET

Vowels

O.E. VOWELS	KEY-WORDS	O.E. EXAMPLES
a	f*a*ther,	b*a*n*a*, 'murderer.'
ā	f*a*r,	st*ā*n, 'stone.'
æ	gl*a*d,	hw*æ*t, 'what.'
ǣ	f*à*re,	s*ǣ*, 'sea.'
e	m*e*n,	w*e*g, 'way.'
ē	*a*le,	h*ē*, 'he.'
i	*i*t,	s*i*ge, 'victory.'
ī	*ee*l,	w*ī*n, 'wine.'
o	n*o*t,	þ*o*nne, 'than.'
ō	n*o*,	t*ō*, 'to.'
u	f*u*ll,	s*u*n*u*, 'son.'
ū	m*oo*n,	*ū*t, 'out.'

To make the vowel-chamber for *y* round the lips for *u*, and raise the tongue for *i*; for *ȳ* prolong the sound of *y*.

Consonants

c like *c* in *c*at.
cw like *qu* in *qu*ite.
g like *g* in *g*o.
h like *h* in *h*e, when *h* is initial.
h like *ch* in lo*ch* (Scotch), when *h* is medial or final.
f like *v* in o*v*er, when *f* is between two sonants—otherwise like our *f*.
ng like *ng* in fi*ng*er.
s like *s* in *s*ing.
þ like *th* in *th*ing—usually initial.
ð like *th* in *th*is—usually medial or final.

CHAPTER III

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE AND ITS PARTS

"Trees grow."

These two words form a **Sentence** because they make **complete sense.** In every sentence **something is said about something.** When **two**[1] **notions** — as of the things trees, and the action grow — are brought together in the mind and a judgment is reached that one belongs to the other, we have a **thought.** Here *trees* denotes the things thought about, and *grow* expresses what is thought about them.

DEFINITION. — **A Sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought.**

The word that denotes what we think of and speak of is called the **Subject**; and the word that denotes what we think and say of the thing or things named by the subject is called the **Predicate.**

DEFINITIONS

The Subject of a sentence names that of which something is thought.

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[1] In logic, the expression of a thought is said to have three parts. In "Rain is falling," *rain* is subject, *falling* is predicate, and *is* is the **copula** or link, joining the two terms into a judgment expressed.

But, as the copula is often united with the predicate as one word, it is regarded in grammar as forming a part of the predicate.

The Predicate of a sentence expresses what is thought.

Few thoughts are expressed in sentences of two words each. We describe more fully the thing thought of, and express more fully what we think of it.

"*Large* trees grow *here.*"

In this sentence something is said not of all trees but of those only that have the quality expressed by *large;* and what is said of these trees is not that in a general sense they grow, but that they grow in a certain place denoted by *here.*

"Trees *of great size* grow *in California.*"

Here the group of words, *of great size,* does the work of the one word *large,* and *in California* does the work of *here.* Such groups are called **Phrases (simple).**

DEFINITION. — **A Phrase is a group of words denoting related ideas, and having a distinct office, but not expressing a thought.**

Words added to other words to make their meaning more definite are said to **modify** them.

DEFINITION. — **A Modifier**[1] **is a word or group of words joined to some part of a sentence to qualify or limit the meaning.**

In each of the three sentences examined above, it is seen that the two essential words are *trees* and *grow.* The first may be called the **Grammatical Subject**; the second, the **Grammatical Predicate.**

Modifiers are also called adjuncts, enlargements, extensions.

The grammatical subject with its modifiers may be called the **Logical Subject**, or the **Modified Subject**; the grammatical predicate with its modifiers, the **Logical Predicate**, or the **Modified Predicate**.

The simple terms *subject* and *predicate*, as often used, mean *grammatical subject*[1] and *grammatical predicate*.

The grammatical predicate may consist of two or more words taken together, as: —

"Trees *have grown*"; "The trees *will* then *have been destroyed*."

Around the grammatical subject and grammatical predicate, as the two chief parts of every sentence, all the other parts are grouped. In studying the subject, it is all-important then that we come to discern these two parts at a glance; we can then swiftly and intelligently deal with the other words.[2]

INCOMPLETE PREDICATES AND THEIR COMPLEMENTS

Attribute Complements

You have learned that in every sentence something is said about something; you will understand therefore that

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[1] This subject is also called *simple subject*, *base subject*, and *subject base*.

Those who use the simple term *subject* to denote only the complete, or logical, subject can hardly be consistent when speaking of the agreement of a word with its subject, of the case of the subject, of modifiers of the subject, etc.

As the work of grammatical analysis is prominently concerned with the two chief words of a sentence, it will be found convenient, in speaking of these, to use the simple terms *subject* and *predicate*.

[2] The division of a sentence into the entire subject and the entire predicate, thus: —

thinking is directly concerned with things, and what belongs to things — their attributes. In

"Corn *grows*,"

it is asseited that the **action** growing is an attribute of corn. *Grows* does two things here — it expresses the attribute and asserts it. In

"Corn *growing*,"

growing expresses the action but does not assert; it does not show that a judgment has been reached. In

"Corn *is* growing,"

the asserting force is supplied by *is*.

Actions are not the only attributes asserted of things; we often assert **qualities**, as: —

"Corn is *nutritious*."

Is is here an incomplete predicate; for, although it asserts, *nutritious* is needed to express the quality asserted of

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"Trees of a large size | grow in California,"

is advised as "the first and simplest step" in the analysis. When all the words are in their natural order, this division is quite mechanical; but when the words are arranged otherwise, as in

"In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas,
Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand Pré
Lay in the fruitful valley,"

it becomes necessary first to find the two chief words, and then to group the modifying words on the basis of their relation to these. The first and simplest step thus becomes the final step.

corn as its attribute. *Nutritious* completes the predicate; hence it may be a **Complement.** In

"Corn is a *cereal*,"

all the qualities essential to the **class,** cereal, are here asserted of corn. *Is* is the incomplete predicate, and *cereal* is the complement. In

"The sky *grows dark*,"

the quality darkness, not the action growing, is what we chiefly assert of the sky. *Growing dark* would express the complete attribute.

These words that complete the predicate by helping to express the attribute asserted of that which the subject names are called **Attribute Complements,** or **Subjective Complements.**

DEFINITION. — **The Attribute, or Subjective, Complement of a sentence completes the predicate and belongs to the subject.**

OBJECT COMPLEMENT OR OBJECT

A large class of predicate words require completions quite different from those described above. In

"A cat caught . . ."; "The officer held . . ."; "The man seized . . ."; "He killed . . . ."

it is plain that the predicates are incomplete, and that the names of the things on which action is exerted are necessary to make complete sense, as in

"A cat caught a *mouse*"; "The officer held the *thief*"; "The man seized a *rope*"; "He killed a *deer*."

A word that completes the predicate by naming that on which the action is exerted may be called the **Object Complement,**[1] or simply the **Object.**

DEFINITION.—**The Object Complement of a sentence completes the predicate, and names that which receives the act.**

COMPOUND SUBJECT, COMPOUND PREDICATE, AND OTHER COMPOUND PARTS

"*William* and *Mary* reigned together."[2]

The two names, *William* and *Mary,* connected by *and,* make one subject — one thing is asserted of the two persons.

"The tide *ebbs* and *flows* without cessation."

Ebbs and *flows,* connected by *and,* make one predicate — two actions are jointly asserted of one thing.

Two or more connected subjects, having the same predicate, form a **Compound Subject.**

Two or more connected predicates, having the same subject, form a **Compound Predicate.**

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[1] The term *complement* is used in many text-books to denote only the Subjective, or Attribute, complement.

[2] Some authorities insist that all such sentences must be regarded as two simple sentences contracted. Others admit that a simple sentence may have a compound subject, but deny that it can have a compound predicate. Others allow a compound subject or a compound predicate when the parts are connected by *and* but not when connected by *or* or *nor*.

Both **subject** and **predicate** in the same sentence may be **compound**, as in

"*Robert* and his *friend read* and *discussed* Dante."

The (1) **attribute complement** and the (2) **object** may be **compound**, as in

(1) "He is *true* and *good*"; (2) "We love *truth* and *virtue*."

Word and **phrase modifiers** may be **compound**, as in

(1) The *mental*, *moral*, and *muscular* powers are improved by "exercise"; (2) "The Equinox occurs *in March* and *in September*."

Phrases thus connected form a **Compound Phrase**.

KINDS OF SENTENCES AS TO MEANING AND USE

A subject and a predicate may express (1) a direct assertion, affirmative or negative; (2) an inquiry; (3) a command or strong wish; (4) an exclamation.

A sentence used to make a statement or declare a fact is **Declarative**, as: —

"The moon revolves around the earth"; "I am going"; "I am not going."

A sentence that expresses an inquiry is **Interrogative**. The question may be in the predicate itself, as: —

"*Is* he at home?"

Or in the subject itself, as: —

"*Who* is at home?"

Or in some word joined to subject or predicate, as: —

"*Which* plan was adopted?" "*Whom* did you see?" "*When* did you meet?" "*What* is your reason?"

When the interrogative word is in the predicate, the subject is generally after the asserting word, and the sentence is said to be **inverted.**[1]

The analysis of an interrogative sentence is the same as that of the corresponding declarative, as: —

(1) "Is he at home?" "He is at home." (2) "What is your reason?" "My reason is this." (3) "Whom did you choose?" "We chose (= did choose) John."

A sentence that expresses a command or an entreaty is **Imperative,** as: —

"Come at once"; "Help me."[2]

A command may be expressed in a statement or a question, as: —

"Thou shalt not steal"; "You must go"; "Will you leave the room instantly?"

A wish may be expressed so as to resemble an imperative, as: —

"Part[3] we in friendship"; "Long live[3] the king!"

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[1] The interrogative word, being the most important in the mind of the speaker, naturally stands at the beginning of the sentence, an emphatic position.

[2] The subject of an imperative sentence — *you* or *thou* — is regularly omitted. If used, it follows the verb, as in "Help *thou* me."

[3] This use of a sentence to express a strong wish is called **optative.** *We* and *king*, the subjects of *part* and *live*, are in the first and third persons.

The true imperative is always in the second person.

"Let it be so," "Be it so," and "May it be so,"

do not differ much in meaning, but only the first is imperative; the subject of *let* being understood, while that of *be* and *may be* is *it*.

A sentence that expresses sudden thought or strong feeling is **exclamatory**, as: —

"What a happy creature Polly is!" "How unexpected this happiness to us!"

Such sentences, introduced by the interrogative *how* and *what*, were originally questions; but the interrogative force has been lost, and they may be classed as exclamatory.

A sentence in the declarative, interrogative, or imperative form may be exclamatory when uttered mainly to give vent to feeling. The writer must determine when the exclamation point should take the place of the period or the interrogation mark, as: —

"It is impossible!" "Is it possible!" "Think of the absurdity of it!"

Definitions

A Declarative Sentence is one that is used to affirm or deny.

An Interrogative[1] Sentence is one that expresses a question.

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[1] When an interrogative sentence is made a part of another sentence, it may be (1) direct; as, "He asked me, '*What shall I do?*'" or (2) indirect; as, "He asked me *what he should do.*" The capitalization and punctuation of the two are not the same — as is seen.

An Imperative Sentence is one that expresses a command or an entreaty.

An Exclamatory Sentence is one that expresses sudden thought or strong feeling.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — A Sentence. Its Parts — Subject and Predicate. Subject — Grammatical and Logical. Predicate — Grammatical and Logical. A Phrase. A Modifier. Complements — Attribute and Object. Compound Parts of a Sentence — Subject, Predicate, and Word and Phrase Modifiers. Sentences — Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, and Exclamatory.

Questions. — What is a thought? A sentence? What two parts of a sentence? Define each. A copula? and why grammar makes it a part of the predicate? What is a simple phrase? A modifier? What other names for a modifier? What is a grammatical subject? A grammatical predicate? A logical, or modified, subject? A logical, or modified, predicate? What other names for a modified subject? Of how many words may a grammatical predicate consist? Why important to detect the grammatical subject and the grammatical predicate at a glance? Why is it sometimes difficult to do this? An incomplete predicate, what? What is that which completes such a predicate called? What two common kinds of complements are there? Define and illustrate each. What is a compound subject? A compound predicate? A compound word modifier? A compound phrase modifier? Define and illustrate them all. Define and illustrate a declarative sentence. Define and illustrate an interrogative sentence. In what words may the question be? Illustrate. What is a direct question? An indirect? Illustrate. What difference in the capitalization of the two? When is a sentence said to be inverted? Define and illustrate an imperative sentence. What

sentences other than imperative may express a command? Illustrate. How may a true imperative sentence be known? The subject of an imperative sentence is what? Is it usually expressed? Define and illustrate an exclamatory sentence. Such sentences, introduced by *how* or *what*, were once of what kind? When do declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences become exclamatory? The division of sentences into these four kinds based upon what?

Exercises.—(1) "Robert and his friend read and discussed Dante and Milton"; (2) "He neither writes nor speaks like a native Englishman."

Resolve (1) into eight separate sentences. Name its three compound parts. Dropping *neither* and *nor* from (2), resolve it into two sentences. What part of (2) is compound? Take the quotation from Longfellow, foot-note, p. 37, and give (1)the logical and the grammatical subject of it; (2) the logical and the grammatical predicate of it; (3) the single word modifiers in it; (4) the simple phrase modifiers in it; and tell (5) whether the predicate in it is incomplete or not. Are those in (1) and (2) above incomplete or not?

CHAPTER IV

CLASSES OF WORDS—PARTS OF SPEECH

WE have divided sentences into parts, and called these the *Subject*, the *Predicate*, the *Complement*, and the *Modifier*, but we have not yet examined the offices of the separate words of those parts.

All the words of our language are grouped into eight classes according to their different uses in the sentence — these classes are called **Parts of Speech.**

"*Mary's mother*, the *wife* of the *merchant*, bought her *daughter* a *house* a few *months* ago"; "My *son*, make wisdom the *object* of your life, for it is the principal *thing*."

The words italicized in these two sentences have different offices — (1) *mother* is **subject**, (2) *house* is **object**, (3) *Mary's* is a **possessive modifier** of *mother*, (4) *wife* is **explanatory** of *mother*, (5) *merchant* is **chief word in a phrase**, (6) *daughter* is **indirect object** of an action, (7) *months* has an **adverbial use**, (8) *son* is **independent** by address, (9) *object* is **objective complement**, and (10) *thing* is **attribute complement**. But, while discharging each a special office, they **all have one office** — they **name** persons and mere things.

A word used as a name is called a **Noun.**

The subject is the chief name in any sentence; there can be no complete sentence without a name, or some substitute for a name, used as subject.

"*I* hear that *you* advised *him* to see *her*"; "*Who* will go?" "The house *which* stood here was burned"; "*That* is right."

The words italicized in these sentences are not names, but they connote relations to the speaker, denote persons and things, and stand for their names. *I* represents the speaker; *you*, the one spoken to; *him* and *her*, persons unnamed here but previously mentioned; *who* stands for a name which the one addressed is asked to supply; *which* stands for *house;* and *that*, for the name of something which it points out.

A word that takes the place of a noun is called a **Pronoun**; and the word for which a pronoun stands is called its **Antecedent.**

We have seen that every sentence must contain an asserting word.

The word that expresses an assertion is called a **Verb.**

A verb may make a complete predicate, or it may require some other word or words to complete it, as:—

"Grass *grows*"; "Grass *is green.*"

A verb made up of two or more words may be called a **Verb Phrase,** as:—

"The house *has* just *been built.*"

There are verbal forms, usually classed with the verb, though they do not assert, as: —

"I went to *see* him"; "The lady, *seeing* her danger, sprang back"; "I blame you for *telling* that."

To see him is a phrase modifying *went; seeing her danger* is a phrase modifying *lady;* and *for telling that* is a phrase modifying *blame. See* is here an **Infinitive**; *seeing* is a **Participle**; and *telling* is a **Nounal Verb**. The infinitive is usually preceded by *to,* and the participle and the nounal verb generally end in **-ing**, **-ed**, or **-en**. Like verbs, these words here express action and take objects; but, unlike true verbs, they lack asserting force — *see, seeing,* and *telling* here assert nothing.

A substantive[1] (or its equivalent) and a verb are the essential parts of every sentence — one naming the object of thought, and the other telling what the thing named does or is. All the other words of a sentence are joined directly or indirectly to these important words.

Indeed, a substantive and a verb may make a sentence without the help of other words, as: —

"*Rain falls*"; "*Trees grow.*"

We have seen that a pronoun may be substituted for a noun, but there is no substitute for a verb in the sentence.

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[1] A **substantive** is a noun or a pronoun representing something which has, or is regarded as having, an independent existence, and which can be made an object of thought.

A noun or a pronoun may by itself be the subject of a sentence; but, as you have learned, words are often joined to the subject to describe more fully the person or thing named, as in

"*Two honest old* farmers were chosen"; "*Firm* and *fearless*, he pressed forward."

Old and *honest* modify *farmers* by telling what kind of farmers are here spoken of, and *two* tells how many farmers of this kind are spoken of. *Firm* and *fearless* express qualities of the person represented by *he*, and thus modify the pronoun.

A word modifying a noun or a pronoun is called an **Adjective.**

Honest old farmers expresses the qualities that all farmers have plus those denoted by *honest* and *old;* but, as there are some farmers not honest and old, *honest old farmers* applies to fewer persons than *farmers* does. The **adjective,** then, **increases** the **meaning,** but **decreases** the **application,** of the **noun.**

But from the second example above it will be seen that adjectives do not always limit the application of the word they modify. *He* refers to a particular person, and *firm* and *fearless* simply call attention to some of his qualities.

"Jack has returned from *a long ocean* voyage."

Long and *ocean* tell the kind of voyage, and *a* tells how many. These three words modify *voyage* — the principal

word of a phrase. It will be seen, then, that a noun or a pronoun in any part of a sentence may take modifiers like those joined to the subject.

It must be observed that a noun may be used like an adjective without becoming an adjective, as in

"*John's* friend *Henry* is expected to-morrow."

The possessive *John's* tells whose friend is expected, and the explanatory *Henry* tells what friend. But *John's* and *Henry* are not adjectives but nouns, for they name, and they may be modified as nouns are. In

"Men *of wisdom* are respected,"

of wisdom = the adjective *wise*. **Phrases** then may be **adjectival.**

Just as adjectives are joined to a noun to describe the thing named so words are joined to the verb to describe or limit the action expressed, as: —

"He made *one foolish* speech"; "He *once* spoke *foolishly*."

Here *once* and *foolishly* modify the verb *spoke* in much the same way that *one* and *foolish* modify the noun *speech;* and *once* and *foolishly* limit the application of the verb as *one* and *foolish* limit the application of the noun. *Once spoke foolishly* applies to one instance of the action, but conveys more information respecting it than *spoke* does.

This kind of modifier, then, increases the meaning of the verb, but decreases the application of it.

(1) "We commend it *highly*"; (2) "It was a *highly* commendable act"; (3) "He *now* writes *much more legibly*."

In (1), *highly*, like *foolishly* above, modifies the verb; in (2), *highly* modifies the adjective *commendable;* in (3), *now* and *legibly* modify the verb, *more* modifies *legibly*, and *much* modifies *more*.

We have seen that our thoughts and words are concerned with things and what belong to things — namely, their attributes; that nouns name things;[1] and that verbs and adjectives express attributes of things.

Just as words that name things are put into a class so words that describe attributes are; and, as the verb expresses the chief attribute, the words that describe attributes are called **Adverbs**, 'to verbs.' Since an adverb expresses an attribute of an attribute, a word modifying an adjective or an adverb, as well as a verb, must be an adverb. We may therefore say that

A word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, is an **adverb**. In

"Londonderry, situated *on a famous bay*, has had a history,"

the simple phrase, *on a famous bay*, modifying the modifier *situated*, performs the office of an adverb. There are, then, **adverb phrases** as well as adjective phrases.

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[1] The word *thing*, used without an adjective, as *mere*, may designate all objects, material and immaterial — persons even.

We find some words that represent neither things nor their attributes. They show the relations of things to things, and of things to actions and other attributes, as in

"The house *by* the river was lifted *from* its foundation and carried *across* the stream, which was yellow *with* the soil *of* the freshet."

By shows the relation (nearness) of the house to the river; *from*, the relation (separation) of the action of lifting to the foundation; *across*, the relation (direction) of the action of carrying to the stream; *with*, the relation (means) of the attribute, or quality, yellow to the soil; and *of*, the relation (possession) of soil to the freshet. Each word — *by*, *from*, *across*, *with*, and *of* — is the introductory and the connecting word of a phrase modifying a preceding word.

Words introducing phrase modifiers and showing the relation of things to things, and of things to actions, states, and other attributes, are called **Prepositions.**

We find another class of words whose chief office is to join two sentences into one, as in

"Life is short *and* time is fleeting"; "I go *but* I return"; "We shall not reap *if* we do not sow."

Some connecting words join two words or two phrases that have the same office in the sentence, as in

"Time *and* tide wait for no man"; "He was born of poor *but* industrious parents"; "We hope to spend the winter in London *or* in Paris."

Words that connect words, phrases, or clauses are called **Conjunctions.**[1]

"*Ah!* this is indeed good news"; "*Hurrah!* our side has won"; "*Pshaw!* what nonsense is this?" "*Oh!* how he must have suffered!"

Ah, hurrah, pshaw, and *oh* belong neither to the subject nor to the predicate. They merely accompany one or the other to express strong feeling. Such words are called **Interjections** because interjected, or thrown in. They form the eighth and last part of speech.

The interjection does not enter into the structure of a simple sentence and help to form it; it is therefore hardly entitled to be called a *part of speech.* In connected discourse, it is a quasi-clause.

Nouns and other parts of speech may be used independently, like interjections, without becoming interjections, as: —

"*Peace!* peace with honor is now impossible."

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[1] **Conjunctions** and **prepositions are alike** in that they connect; but even in this office they **are unlike** (1) in that conjunctions connect clauses, while prepositions do not; (2) in that conjunctions connect coördinate whole phrases, while prepositions connect only the principal word in a modifying, and hence subordinate, phrase to the word modified; and (3) in that prepositions connect words by showing their relation in sense or meaning. For example, in

"The body *and* the mind *of* a child must be trained *by* a teacher,"

the conjunction *and* connects the things, body and mind, as joint objects of training; while the preposition *of* connects the name *child* to the names *body* and *mind*, by showing the relation (possession) existing between the child and his body and mind; and the preposition *by* connects *teacher* to *must be trained* by showing the relation (agency) between the teacher and the act.

The eight parts of speech may, for a general view, be grouped thus: —

1. **Nouns, Pronouns,** and **Verbs** — the essential parts of a sentence.
2. **Adjectives** and **Adverbs** — modifiers.
3. **Conjunctions** and **Prepositions** — connectives.
4. **Interjections** — exclamations thrown in.

THE SAME WORDS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH

The definition of parts of speech implies that the same words, differently used, fall into different classes, as in

(1) "You have found your *equal*," "They have *equal* shares," "Two and two *equal* four"; (2) "Throw a *stone*," "*Stone* the reptile," "He built a *stone* wall"; (3) "*That* is a fact," "*That* fact is not denied," "The man *that* was chosen declined," "*That* the whole equals the sum of all its parts is an axiom"; (4) "*Past* follies are forgotten," "The *past*, at least, is secure," "He rushed *past* the goal," "The train swept *past*"; (5) "He turned his *back* upon us," "Come *back*," "The *back* settlements," "*Back* the wagon out."

DEFINITIONS

A Noun is the name of anything.

A Pronoun is a word used for a noun.

A Verb is a word that asserts action, being, or state of being.

An Adjective is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun.

An Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

A Preposition is a word that introduces a phrase modifier, and shows the relation, in sense, of its principal word to the word modified.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, or clauses.

An Interjection is a word used to express strong or sudden feeling.

The Subdivisions, the Modifications, and the History of these eight Parts of Speech will be found in the chapters following those that complete the treatment of the sentence.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation.—Parts of Speech. The Noun. The Pronoun. The Verb. The Adjective. The Adverb. The Preposition. The Conjunction. The Interjection. The Grouping of the Eight Classes. The same Words in Different Classes.

Questions.—On what basis are words grouped into classes called *parts of speech?* What various offices in the sentence have nouns? But what common office gives all nouns their name? What is the office of a pronoun? Its antecedent, what? Office of the verb? A verb phrase, what? What verb forms do not assert? How distinguished from each other? A substantive? A substantive and a verb may do what? Office of an adjective? Effect of an adjective upon the meaning of the word it modifies? Upon the application? Illustrate both. Does the adjective always do this? The part of speech used like an adjective, but not one? Illustrate. Show that a phrase may be adjectival. What part of speech modifies the verb much as the adjective modifies the noun? Illustrate. The pertinence of its name? What besides verbs do adverbs modify? Illustrate. How

do we use the word *thing*, unmodified by an adjective, as *mere?* An adverb phrase? What part of speech expresses relations? Relations between what? Illustrate. Full office of the preposition? What different things may conjunctions connect? Illustrate. The three points in which, in the office of connecting, conjunctions and prepositions differ? Show that interjections do not enter the structure of the sentence. Group the parts of speech according to the likeness of their office. Show that the same words may be different parts of speech. Define the eight parts of speech.

Exercises. — So far as you can, place in its proper part of speech, as noun, pronoun, verb, etc., every word used in the illustrative sentences of this chapter.

CHAPTER V

A COMBINATION OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE ONE OF THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

SENTENCES, each complete in itself, may be linked together to make a longer sentence, as: —

(1) "The way was long, and the night was cold"; (2) "Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers"; (3) "We must conquer our vicious habits, or they will conquer us."

Each of these sentences is made up of two distinct parts called **Clauses**; and neither of these clauses, containing each a subject and a predicate, is dependent upon the other — neither modifies, nor is modified by, the other.

Such clauses are called **Independent Clauses**, and, when united, they form a **Compound Sentence.**

DEFINITIONS

A Clause is a part of a sentence containing a subject and its predicate.

An Independent, or Coördinate, Clause is one not dependent on another clause.

The coördinate clauses in the first illustrative sentence

above are in the **same line of thought**; in the second, are in **contrast**; in the third, in **alternation.**

"Of thy unspoken word thou art master; thy spoken word is master of thee."

Here we see independent clauses joined in compound sentences without a connecting word.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

Dependent Adjective Clause

(1) "*Wise* men are respected"; (2) "Men *of wisdom* are respected"; (3) "Men *who are wise* are respected."

If we apply the question, What kind of men? to these sentences, the answer is (1) *wise,* (2) *of wisdom,* and (3) *who are wise.* It is evident that these three expressions do the same work — that *who are wise,* like *wise* and *of wisdom,* is a modifier of *men.* But *who are wise,* though containing a subject and a predicate, is neither a sentence nor an independent clause; for it does not make complete sense and it cannot stand alone — *who* referring to *men* in another clause for its meaning.

It is a clause and not a phrase, for it contains a subject and a predicate. We call it a **dependent clause.**

It here modifies the **subject** *men* of the other clause in the sentence. It might modify an **object,** as in

"We know *men who are wise.*"

Other words that introduce such clauses are *which, that, when, where, whereby,* etc.

Who are wise does the work of the adjective phrase *of wisdom,* and of the adjective *wise.* The **dependent clause** *who are wise* is, then, an **adjective clause.**

Dependent Noun Clause

(1) "*Wisdom* is the principal thing"; (2) "*To be wise* is the principal thing"; (3) "*That we should be wise* is the principal thing."

Apply the question, What is the principal thing? to these sentences, and the answer is (1) *wisdom,* (2) *to be wise,* and (3) *that we should be wise.* They all do the same work, that of **subject,** hence a phrase or a **dependent clause** may be the **subject** of a sentence.

"We know *that wisdom is the principal thing.*"

Know is an incomplete predicate; it is completed by the dependent **object clause** *that wisdom is the principal thing.* A **dependent clause** may be an **object,** or **object complement.**

"Our belief is, *that wisdom is the principal thing.*"

Is is an incomplete predicate; it is completed by the **attribute clause,** *that wisdom is the principal thing.* A **dependent clause** may be an **attribute complement.**

"It is our belief *that wisdom is the principal thing.*"

The dependent clause, *that wisdom is the principal thing,* tells what is meant by *it,* explains *it* — the subject of the

independent clause. A **dependent clause** may be **explanatory.**

"What is meant *by 'Wisdom is the principal thing'?*"

Here the dependent clause has the grammatical force and office in the phrase, *by wisdom is the principal thing,* that *wisdom* preceded by *by* (and modified by some explanatory words) would have — that is, it is equivalent to the **principal word** in a **phrase.** A **dependent clause,** then, may be used as the **principal term** in a **phrase.**

In the preceding chapter, we saw that these five offices of dependent clauses are offices which **nouns** discharge. These five dependent clauses are therefore called **noun clauses.**

Dependent Adverb Clause

"He came *immediately*"; "He came *when he was called.*"

In the first sentence, *immediately* modifies the predicate *came* by telling when he came — by expressing **time.** The same work is done in the second sentence by the clause *when he was called.* A **dependent clause,** then, may express **time.**

As, after, before, since, till, while, etc., are other words that introduce such clauses.

"He goes *where he wishes to go.*"

Here the dependent clause, *where he wishes to go,* modifies the predicate *goes* by telling the **place** where he goes. A **dependent clause,** then, may express **place.**

Wherever and *where* . . *there* are other words that introduce such clauses.

"He came *because he was called.*"

Here the dependent clause modifies the predicate *came* by telling the **cause** of his coming — what made him come. A **dependent clause**, then, may express **cause**.

As, *for*, and *since* are other words that introduce such clauses.

"He came *because I saw him here.*"

Here the dependent clause tells, not the cause of his coming, but the cause of my knowing that he came; it is my **evidence** for what I assert. A **dependent clause** may express **evidence**.

For and *since* are other words that introduce such clauses.

"He will come *if he is called.*"

Here the dependent clause modifies the predicate *will come* by telling the **condition** of his coming. A **dependent clause** may express **condition**.

Unless meaning 'if not,' and *were* and *should*, without connectives, are other words that introduce such clauses.

"He will not come *although he is called.*"

Here the clause, *although he is called*, **concedes** that a cause for coming exists; but in the independent clause it is asserted that, in spite of this cause, he will not come. A **dependent clause** may express **concession**.

If meaning 'even if,' and *though* are other words that introduce such clauses.

"He came *that he might see you.*"

Here the clause, *that he might see you,* tells the object, or **purpose,** of his coming. A **dependent clause** may express **purpose.**

In order that and *so that* are other words that introduce such clauses.

"He came *as he was told to come,* by rail."

Here the clause, *as he was told to come,* tells the **manner** of his coming. A **dependent clause** then may express **manner.**

As . . . so also introduces such clauses.

"Lincoln was as wise *as he was good.*"

Here the clause, *as he was good,* modifies the first *as* — a modifier of *wise* — and tells the **degree** of Lincoln's wisdom. A **dependent clause** then may express **degree.**

The . . . the and *than* are other words that introduce such clauses.

"It was so cold *that mercury froze.*"

Here the dependent clause, *that mercury froze,* measures the degree of the cold by giving the **result** of it. A **dependent clause** then may express **result.**

So . . . as also introduces such clauses.

In the preceding chapter we saw that the part of speech which, like these ten dependent clauses of **time, place, cause,**

evidence, condition, concession, purpose, manner, degree, result, modifies a predicate, an adjective, or an adverb is called an **adverb.** These ten **dependent clauses** are **adverb clauses** then.

Definitions

A Dependent Clause is one used as an adjective, an adverb, or a noun.

SENTENCES CLASSED WITH RESPECT TO FORM

A Simple Sentence is one that contains but one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound.

A Compound Sentence is one composed of two or more independent, or coördinate, clauses.

A Complex Sentence is one composed of an independent, or principal, clause and one or more dependent clauses.

We have seen that sentences, subjects and predicates of sentences, complements, and word and phrase modifiers may be compound. We now add that

Independent and **dependent clauses** may be **compound,** as in

"When morning dawned *we rose* and *we breakfasted*"; "They *that love wisdom* and *that seek it* will find it"; "Who has not heard these wise sayings, 'Great haste makes waste' and 'A stitch in time saves nine'?" "*If the fog lifts* and *the wind blows*, we shall set sail."

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Clauses. Independent Clauses. Compound Sentences. Dependent Clauses — Adjective, Noun, and Adverb. Compound Clauses.

Questions. — What is a clause? An independent clause? A compound sentence? The thought of the second clause related how to that of the first? Illustrate. The two clauses joined how? An adjective clause = what? Illustrate. Why dependent? May modify what word? What words other than *who* may introduce such clauses? What five offices of the noun in a sentence may a dependent clause perform? Illustrate. Such a clause is fitly called what? Define and illustrate the ten kinds of adverb clauses. By what words — conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs — may each clause be introduced, and connected to the word it modifies? Define a dependent clause, a simple sentence, a compound sentence, a complex sentence. With respect to what are sentences thus classed?

Exercises. — Write three compound sentences with *hence* connecting the clauses of the first; *yet* connecting the clauses of the second; and *nor* connecting the clauses of the third. Write three complex sentences the adjective clauses of which shall be introduced respectively by *that*, *which*, and *where*. Write ten complex sentences each containing an adverb clause — (1) a time clause introduced by *since;* (2) a place clause introduced by *wherever;* (3) a cause clause introduced by *for;* (4) an evidence clause introduced by *for;* (5) a condition clause introduced by *unless;* (6) a concessive clause introduced by *if;* (7) a purpose clause introduced by *so that;* (8) a manner clause introduced by *as . . . so;* (9) a degree clause introduced by *than;* and (10) a result clause introduced by *so . . . as.*

CHAPTER VI

THE SENTENCE (*Completed*)

We have seen that sentences may be complex; we now add that

Phrases may be **complex**, as in

(1) *Two honest old* men were chosen"; (2) "He writes now *much more legibly*"; (3) "The children *of this country of ours* have great advantages"; (4) "Londonderry, situated *in the north of Ireland*, has had a famous history."

In (1), *old* modifies *men*, *honest* modifies *old men*, and *two* modifies *honest old men; two honest old* is a **complex adjective phrase made up of single word modifiers.** In (2), the adverb *more* modifies the adverb *legibly*, and is in turn modified by the adverb *much; much more legibly* is a **complex adverb phrase made up of single word modifiers.**

In (3), *country*, the principal word of the prepositional adjective phrase *of this country* is modified by another adjective phrase, *of ours.* The whole phrase, *of this country of ours*, is a **complex adjective phrase made up of two adjective phrases**, and modifies the noun *children.*

In (4), the adjective *situated*, modifying *Londonderry*, is itself modified by the simple adverb phrase *in the north*, the

principal word of which, *north*, is modified by the adjective phrase *of Ireland*. The whole phrase *in the north of Ireland* is a **complex adverb phrase made up of two phrases — one adverb and one adjective.**

The highly complex phrase, *on a beautiful bay in the north of Ireland*, would contain two complex phrases — *on a beautiful bay in the north* and *in the north of Ireland.*

A phrase composed of at least one word modified by another word or another phrase is called a **Complex Phrase.**

Sentences and phrases may be complex; we now add that **Clauses** may be **Complex**, as in

(1) "Hope thinks that nothing is difficult; despair tells us that difficulty is insurmountable"; (2) "The Bible says that, if our right eye leads us into sin, we should pluck it out; it says also that, if our right hand thus offends, we should cut it off"; (3) "An untruth is something not true, though the one who tells it believes that it is true; a lie is something false, told, with intent to deceive, by one who knows that it is false"; (4) "When the question was asked whether oysters were healthy or unhealthy during certain months, and a physician replied, 'I never heard an oyster complain of an ache or an ail,' he was only insisting on the difference which exists between the synonyms *healthful* and *healthy*"; (5) "Wellington did not write as well after the battle of Waterloo as he wrote before, because his constant fear was, that what the conqueror of Napoleon said would be read by everybody."

Sentences (1), (2), and (3) are compound; and the two independent clauses in each, separated by the semicolon, are complex.

Each independent clause in (1) contains a noun clause beginning with *that*, and each noun clause is the object of a verb in the principal clause — of *thinks* in one, and of *tells* in the other.

Each independent clause in (2) contains a complex noun clause beginning with *that*, and each noun clause is the object of a verb in the principal clause — of *says* in the one, and of *says* in the other. The first complex noun clause contains a condition clause, *if . . . sin*, modifying *should pluck;* the second complex noun clause contains a condition clause, *if . . . offends*, modifying *should cut.*

The first independent clause in (3) contains a complex concessive clause, *though . . . true; one*, the subject of the leading part of this complex clause, is modified by the adjective clause, *who tells it; believes*, the predicate, has as object the noun clause, *that it is true; one*, the principal word in a prepositional phrase in the second independent clause, is modified by a complex adjective clause, *who . . . false;* and *knows*, the predicate of the principal part of this clause, has as object the noun clause, *that . . . false.*

Sentences (4) and (5) are complex.

The independent clause of (4) has *he* for subject, and *was insisting* for grammatical predicate; *was insisting* is modified by the compound time clause, *when . . . ail*, — *and* connecting the two parts of this compound clause; *question*, the subject of the first part, is modified by the explanatory noun clause, *whether . . . months*, and of this clause *oysters* is subject, and *were* is grammatical predicate; *physician* is subject of the second part; *replied*, the predicate, has for its object the noun clause, *I . . . ail;* and *difference*, the principal word of the prepositional phrase beginning with *on*, is modified by the adjective clause, *which . . . healthy.*

The independent clause of (5) has *Wellington* for subject, and *did write* for predicate; the degree clause, *as . . . before*, modifies the first *as;* the predicate, *did write*, is modified by the complex cause clause, *because . . . everybody; was*, the predicate of the leading part of this

clause, is completed by the complex attribute noun clause, *that . . . everybody;* and *what . . . said* is an adjective clause modifying the omitted subject of *would be read,* — *what,* the object of *said,* turning into some other word, as *which,* when the omitted subject, as *that* or *thing,* of *would be read,* is supplied.

It is obvious that the real difficulties in writing, and in analyzing what others have written, are encountered in such intricate sentences as these — sentences scattered thickly over the pages of literature.

WHAT MAY BE THE SUBJECT OF A SENTENCE

1. A **Noun** may be the **Subject** of a sentence. The **name** (1) of any **material** thing; (2) of any **mental** thing; (3) of a **quality**; (4) of an **action**; (5) of a **person**; (6) an **adjective**; and (7) an **adverb, used** as a **noun**; and (8) a **word** as word, as: —

(1) "*Frogs* croak"; (2) "The *memory* fails"; (3) "The *width* is great"; (4) "*Seeing* is believing"; (5) "*Ruskin* is dead"; (6) "The *good* are happy"; (7) "*Now* is the time"; and (8) "*And* is a conjunction."

2. A **Pronoun** may be the **Subject,** as: —

"*Thou* art the man"; "*Who* is the man?" "*That* is mine."

3. The **Infinitive Phrase,** simple, or with added words, as: —

"*To see* is to believe"; "*To tell lies* is contemptible.

4. A **Nounal Verb Phrase,** as: —

"*Telling lies* is contemptible."

5. **Any Phrase**, as: —

"'*Now or never!*' roused all to action"; "*For me to do that* would be wrong."

6. A **Clause**, (1) **simple**, (2) **compound**, or (3) **complex**, as: —

(1) "*That we obey* is a duty"; (2) "*That we should obey* and *that we should do it cheerfully* are duties hard to learn"; (3) "'*The labor we delight in physics pain*' is a saying of Shakespeare's."

MODIFIERS (OR ADJUNCTS) OF THE SUBJECT

A **Modifier** of the **Subject** may be (1) an **adjective**, alone or with adverbial modifiers; (2) a **participle**, alone or with added words; (3) an **infinitive phrase**, simple or with added words; (4) a **substantive in the possessive**, alone or with adjective modifiers; (5) a **substantive explanatory**, alone or with adjective modifiers; and (6) a **prepositional phrase**, the principal word of which is a substantive or a nounal verb, as: —

(1) "*Powerful* engines are built," "*Far more powerful* engines are built"; (2) "The train *approaching* is the Empire State Express," "The engineer, *seeing the danger in time*, saved his train"; (3) The time *to choose* had come," "The time *to choose his calling* had come"; (4) "*Father's* advice was this," "*My good old father's* advice was this"; (5) "The English historian *Macaulay* wrote 'Lays of Ancient Rome,'" "Duncan, *the trustful old king*, went to Macbeth's castle"; (6) "No works *of man*[1] may rival thee," "The reasons *for doing this immediately* were given."

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[1] Phrases like this, introduced by *of*, and equivalent to words in the possessive, are certainly adjectives in use. Phrases introduced by prepositions other than *of*

MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE

The **Predicate,** simple or compound, may be **modified** (1) by an **adverb,** alone or with adverbial modifiers;[1] (2) by a **prepositional phrase** with a substantive or a nounal verb as principal word; (3) by a **substantive,** unmodified or modified; (4) by an **infinitive phrase,** simple or with other

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are generally adverbial, it is thought, though frequently joined to substantives and classed as adjective modifiers.

The adverbial phrases are joined to substantives (1) through the omission of a participle, or (2) through the verbal nature of the modified substantive, as: —

(1) "The accident (occurring) on Monday," "The book (lying) under the paper," "A picture (painted) in water-colors"; (2) "A peep into fairyland (peeped into fairyland)," "A struggle for life" (struggled for life), "Appointment to office" (appointed to office).

It may be objected to this view of the adverbial nature of such phrases that if we hold, as we do, that *when* and *where* clauses may be adjectival, as in

"The place *where* (=*on which*) you stand is holy ground"; "Youth is the time *when* (=*in which*) the seeds of character are sown,"

we should allow *when* and *where* phrases to be adjectival, when following substantives and apparently modifying them.

[1] Adjectives, adverbs, participles, infinitives, and nounal verbs may have these different kinds of adverbial modifiers.

Though not here trying to classify adverbial words and phrases, we may say that they express the modifications of (1) **time**, (2) **place**, (3) **manner**, (4) **degree**, (5) **cause**, (6) **purpose**, (7) **condition**, and (8) **concession** (all of which modifications are expressed, as we have seen, by clauses), as: —

(1) "Come *early*," "The lights shone *at intervals*," "That *night* they caught nothing"; (2) "He stopped *there*," "He went *to the woods*," "Which *way* did he go?" (3) "The wind blew *furiously*," "The rain fell *in torrents*"; (4) "That is good *enough*," "The wall is ten *feet* high," "He was brave *to temerity*"; (5) *Why* are you so still?" "He suffered *from heat*"; (6) "He went there *for his health*"; (7) "*Without help* you won't succeed"; (8) "*Without help* he did succeed."

words; (5) by a **substantive** modified by a **participle**, and **forming** with it **an absolute phrase** grammatically independent, yet having the force of an adverb; and (6) by an **adverb clause**, as: —

(1) "We travel *rapidly*," "We may travel *much more rapidly*"; (2) "We rested *under* a spreading *oak*." "I have heard *of their running away*"; (3) They went *home*," "They sailed *three days*"; (4) "I shall be glad *to go*," "I shall be pleased *to see you at any time*"; (5) "*Our lessons being ended*, we started for the woods"; and (6) "*When our lessons were ended*, we started for the woods."

The **object** may be classed with the modifiers of the predicate; but so distinct are its functions from those of other modifiers that it seems best to treat it separately.

Two kinds of objects are commonly recognized — the **Direct Object** and the **Indirect Object**.

1. The **Direct**[1] **Object** may be (1) the **Passive**, or **Suffering, Object** or (2) the **Factitive Object**.

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[1] When a direct object names the action, or a variety of the action expressed by the verb itself, it may be called a **cognate object**, as in

"He lived a useful *life*"; "She sang a *song*"; "Trip *it* as you go."

Some grammarians **mention** the **cognate object**, give illustrations like those above that directly and obviously name the action denoted by the verb, and suggest that it be treated as an adverbial adjunct.

Others make it of much importance, extending its scope to include **factitive** objects, etc. This is a brief outline of their treatment of it: —

Every verb contains a noun. This noun can always be expressed by a verbal noun, and often by a noun without a verbal ending, as: —

The **Passive,** or **Suffering, Object** denotes that on which the action expressed by the verb is expended, as in

"He killed a *bear*"; "She mailed a *letter.*"

The **Factitive Object** denotes the product of the action expressed by the verb, as in

"She made a *cake*"; "I wrote a *letter.*"

2. **The Indirect,**[1] or **Dative, Object** denotes the one interested in, and affected by, the action expressed by the verb, as in

"I gave *him*[2] a watch"; "He paid *us* our wages."

Verb	*Verbal Noun*	*Noun*
lives	living	life
plays	playing	(a) play
gives	giving	gift
assert	asserting	assertion

The **cognate object is distinguished** from **other objects by the test question,** Does it tell in what the contained noun consists? The following examples illustrate: —

"I paid a *dime*" (cog. obj.); "I paid the *servant*" (suf. obj.).
"I painted the *pictures*" (cog. obj.); "I painted the *door*" (suf. obj.).
"He struck the *horse* (suf. obj.) a *blow* (cog. obj.).
"He taught the *boy* (suf. obj.) *music* (cog. obj.).

[1] **Some** grammarians **extend** the scope of the **indirect object** to include all adverbial expressions essential to the full expression of the verbal notion, as: —

"I dealt *with the grocer*"; "We longed *for your return*"; "The accident deprived him *of sight.*"

It would seem that the sentences do not make complete sense without the help of the italicized phrases.

[2] When a preposition is placed before the substantive, it and the substantive become an adverbial phrase; as, "I gave a watch *to him.*"

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Complex Phrases — three kinds. Complex Clauses — many kinds. What may be Subject of a Sentence? The Modifiers of the Subject. The Modifiers of the Predicate. The Object — Direct, Indirect, Passive, Factitive, Cognate.

Questions. — What is a complex adjective phrase made up of simple word-modifiers? A complex adverb phrase of the same kind? Illustrate each. A complex adjective phrase made up of adjective phrases? A complex adverb phrase — one adverb and one adjective? Illustrate each. Define a complex phrase. A complex clause. What are the different kinds of complex clauses in the three compound and two complex illustrative sentences of the chapter? Of what clauses is each complex clause in these sentences composed? What names, and what parts of speech used as nouns may be the subject of a sentence? What other things than nouns may be so used? Illustrate. What various modifiers may a subject have? Illustrate. May other nouns than the subject have the same? Phrases introduced by what preposition are adjectival? Phrases introduced by other prepositions are joined to substantives through omission of what? Through the nature of what? The predicate may be modified by what? Illustrate. Adverbs and adverb phrases may express what modifications? Illustrate. What besides the predicate may have adverbial modifiers? Subdivide the direct object. What do the passive, the factitive, and the indirect object each denote? Some extend the cognate object to mean what? The indirect object to mean what? Illustrate each extension.

Exercises. — Classify as noun, pronoun, verb, etc., all the words in the five compound and complex illustrative sentences in this chapter. Find in these sentences all the illustrations there of simple, compound, and complex modifiers, and of other compound parts of the sentence.

CHAPTER VII

THE NOUN

In the expression of thought, the various words of a sentence have diverse offices. Classifying words with regard to their offices, we have the **Parts of Speech.** Of these we have seen that there are seven — the **Noun,** the **Pronoun,** the **Adjective,** the **Verb,** the **Adverb,** the **Preposition,** and the **Conjunction** — eight if we add the **Interjection.**

These parts of speech are not on the same footing as respects

1. **Age.** — The adverb and the conjunction, at least, are in their present forms later than the other parts of speech.

2. **Origin.** — "Although adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions are known to have been formed in various ways, yet all these parts of speech may safely be regarded as having originated in the declension of nouns and pronouns." In this judgment of Wrightson's, philologers substantially agree.

3. **Importance.** — We can express a thought with only a verb to denote the action, and a noun or pronoun to denote the person or thing putting it forth.

The Noun, the Name. — This part of speech is called *noun,* not from any of its relations to other words in the

sentence, but because, whatever its relation, the noun always names.

The Derivation of Nouns. — The roots from which nouns are derived denote **actions** or **qualities**, and are called **verbal**, or **predicative, roots.**[1]

About this nucleus root, **derivative affixes** — **prefixes** and **suffixes** — gather, and form with it the **base**, or **stem**, of the noun. To this base are added the **inflectional suffixes** to indicate modifications, and the relations of the word to other words in the sentence. About the root **tru**, for instance, in

"*Tru*-**th-s** and **un**-*tru*-**th-s** were spoken"; "We speak for *tru*-**th**-'**s** sake,"

cluster the derivative affixes **-th** and **un** to form with it the base of the nouns *truths* and *untruths;* to *truth* and *untruth* is added the inflectional suffix **-s** to indicate plurality; and to *truth* is appended the inflectional suffix **-'s** to express case relation to *sake.*

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[1] The root of a noun does not necessarily denote the most essential quality or action of the thing named, only its most obtrusive. The sky, a shower, and scum, for instance, have this noticeable, though accidental, feature; they cover, hide, conceal. This the root **sku** of the nouns *sky*, *shower* (O.E. *scūr*), and *scum*, and of the verb and adjective *obscure*, signifies.

Marking at first a single quality or act of the object, the word comes, by association, to denote the object having or exerting them all, to denote our complex idea of that object.

Herein **proper nouns differ from common.** However derived — as *Smith* from the man's office of smoothing, or *White* from his color, or *Florida* from the flowers found there — and however significant at first, the name soon ceases to denote action or quality, and becomes really meaningless except as a designation.

Inflectional suffixes abound in languages in the synthetic stage of growth, and in some languages that, like ours, have reached the analytic stage; but, in analytic languages generally, these "suffixes have perished wholesale, and the base is left to do almost universal duty."

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

COMMON	*Concrete*	**Individual**, boy, book, thing, ship, man, wheat, iron, substance.
		Collective, army, crowd, mob, fleet, jury, herd, flock.
	Abstract[1]	whiteness, vice, wisdom, existence, (the) sleep, length.
		beauty, (the) singing, humility, virtue, vanity, ugliness.
PROPER		Plato, Sarah, Victoria, God, Saturn, France, Maine, Monday, June, Herbert Spencer, President McKinley, John Stuart Mill.

DEFINITIONS

A Noun is the name of anything.

A Common Noun is the name which belongs to all things of a class.

A Proper Noun is the particular name of an individual.

A Concrete Noun is the name of a thing belonging to a class and considered as having qualities.

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[1] By means of derivative suffixes, abstract nouns are made out of adjectives and verbs; as *width* from *wide*, *rapidity* from *rapid*, *wickedness* from *wicked*, *importance* from *important*, *proof* from *prove*, and *existence* from *exist*.

For practical purposes, the division of nouns into common and proper is sufficient.

An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality, an act, or a state, considered apart from the concrete thing to which it belongs.

An Individual Noun is the name of one thing of a class, or of several things considered separately.

A Collective Noun is the name of several things of a class considered together.

Old English is **synthetic,** that is, it expresses grammatical relations by inflections; **Modern English** is **analytic,** it has lost many of the O.E. inflections. It follows that many of the meanings and uses of words formerly indicated by inflection are not thus indicated now.

The changes in the meaning and in the use of words, whether marked by changes of form or not, constitute their **Modifications.**

DEFINITION.—**Modifications of the Parts of Speech are changes in their meaning and use, and in their form when form is employed.**

Nouns and Pronouns have four Modifications—**Number, Gender, Person,** and **Case.**

In a minute subdivision, the classes overlap. Pluralizing the noun often effects this; as, *beauty, beauties of the Court; license, licenses were granted.* The article sometimes effects this; as, *youth, a youth, the youth; peerage, the peerage of England.*

Proper nouns are really concrete, the persons or things named by them have qualities. But if, as above, concrete nouns are restricted in their scope, the distinction between proper nouns and concrete may be justified.

Indeed, in some real sense, proper nouns may fade into common and the distinction between these two classes vanish; as, "His *Mondays* are his busy days"; "The *Browns* were there"; "He is the *Solon* of this age."

NUMBER

Definitions

Number is that modification of a noun or pronoun which denotes one thing or more than one.

The Singular Number denotes one thing.

The Plural[1] Number denotes more than one thing.

Most nouns in English form their plural by adding **-s** or **-es** to the singular. But, besides this **regular** way, there are **four irregular** ways.

Rule. — **The Plural of Nouns is regularly[2] formed by adding -s or -es to the Singular.**

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[1] There was once a **dual number**; traces of it are seen in the O.E. pronouns. Its endings, according to Sayce, *Encyc. Britannica*, X., 40, were the primitive forms from which the plural endings were derived. Peile, *Primer of Philology*, says, though doubtfully, "The dual forms are apparently later modifications of the plural."

[2] This regular way of forming the plural and three of the irregular ways, have come to us from O.E. Only masculine nouns in one of the two O.E. declensions — see p. 93 — form their plurals in **-as**, which weakened into **-es**, now usually shortened to **-s**.

It is customary to ascribe to Norman-French influence the generalizing of this **-s** into our common plural sign. But Professor Jespersen, *Progress in Language*, objects (1) that the growth of a plural **-s** cannot be separated from that of the possessive **-s**, in which French influence is not claimed; (2) that long before the Conquest the plural **-s** was extended to nouns with other plural endings; (3) that **-s** became universal in the North earlier than in the South, where French influence was strongest; (4) that **-s** was not then used to the same extent as now as a French plural ending; and (5) that the Norman **-s** and the O.E. **-es** were kept distinct for four hundred years in English.

He then adds: "A greater influence upon English than that exercised by the Gallicized Normans, must be ascribed to the Danish Vikings, who, for such a long time, were acting a prominent part in Britain. . . . As for the language, it should be borne in mind that the tongue spoken by the Danes was so nearly akin with the native dialects [of English speech], that the two peoples could understand one another without much difficulty."

"In A-S., as in other Germanic tongues, the declension in **-n** was encroaching upon that in **-s**. Foreign influence turned the tables; the Danes had no plurals in **-s**; the Normans had the **-s** plurals but no **-n**." — *Francis A. March.*

Most of the nouns coming under this rule add **-s** rather than **-es** — the governing principle being that nouns ending in a sound which unites with that of **s** add **-s**. To this rule there are exceptions: —

First Exception. — Some nouns in **o** after a consonant add **-es**, as: —

negro, negroes; echo, echoes; motto, mottoes; cargo, cargoes; volcano, volcanoes; calico, calicoes; torpedo, torpedoes.

Second Exception. — Some nouns in **f** or **fe** add **-es** after changing the **f** to **v**,[1] as: —

calf, calves; leaf, leaves; wolf, wolves; knife, knives; life, lives; wife, wives.

Third Exception. — Nouns in **y** after a consonant add **-es** after changing **y** into **i**,[2] as: —

city, cities; colloquy, colloquies[3]; glory, glories; spy, spies; fancy, fancies; lady, ladies; lily, lilies; daisy, daisies; vanity, vanities.

But nouns in **o** or **y** after a vowel, some nouns in **o** after a consonant, and most nouns in **f** and **fe** follow the principle above, as: —

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[1] This **change** of the **surd** to the **sonant** in **spelling** suggests the tendency to this change in **pronunciation** when the spelling is unchanged — as (1) of the surd **th** in *oath*, *cloth*, etc., to the sonant **th** in *oaths*, *cloths*, etc.; (2) of the **s**-sound of the plural ending after a sonant to the **z**-sound, as in *days*, *eggs*, etc.; and (3) of the **s**-sound in the noun *grease* to the **z**-sound in the verb *grease* and the adjective *greasy*.

[2] Perhaps we should say that Mn.E. has in the singular changed the O.E. ending **ie** (*ladie*, *glorie*, *fancie*) to **y**. According to Mason, some writers retain the **y** in the plural of proper names, as in the *Henrys*, the *Marys*, etc.

[3] In **qu**, **u** is regarded as a consonant.

cameo, cameos; cuckoo, cuckoos; trio, trios; day, days; chimney, chimneys; piano, pianos; tyro, tyros; belief, beliefs; roof, roofs; fife, fifes; strife, strifes; sofa, sofas.

When the singular ends in a sound that does not blend with that of **s**, **-es** is added as a distinct syllable, as: —

box, boxes; brush, brushes; ditch, ditches; gas, gases; lens, lenses; topaz, topazes; horse,[1] horses; cage, cages; prize, prizes; niche, niches.

First[2] Irregular Way of Forming the Plural — Adding *-en*. — In the four nouns: —

ox, oxen; child, children; brother, brethren and brothers; cow, kine and cows.

Second[2] Irregular Way — Change of Internal Vowel. — In the six nouns: —

foot, feet; goose, geese; man, men; tooth, teeth; louse, lice; mouse, mice.

Third[2] Irregular Way — Without Change from the Singular. — These nouns illustrate the method: —

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[1] The final **e** in *horse*, *cage*, etc., is silent, hence the last sound is that of a consonant. By Rule I. for spelling, p. 143, final **e** drops when **-es** is added.

[2] *Oxa*, *fōt*, and *hūs*, chapter IX, give us the originals of our plurals (1) in **-en**, (2) by **change of vowel element**, and (3) **without change**. Only *oxe* of the O.E. nouns in **-an** (**-en**) retains its old ending. *Child* has wholly deserted from the vowel declension; and *brother* and *cow*, partly. These three have **double plurals** — **en** being added to the plural *childer*, O.E. *cildru*, to make *children;* to O.E. *brēther*, *brōthru*, to make *brethren;* and to *cȳ*, the O.E. plural of *cū*, to make *kine*.

In *fōt*, chapter IX, it is seen that **ē**, now **ee**, is found only in the dative singular and in the nominative and accusative plural. The dative was rarely used; the nomi-

deer, grouse, gross, hose, sheep, swine, vermin.

Fourth Irregular Method — Foreign Plurals Retained. — Here are a few illustrations: —

analysis, analyses; beau, beaux or beaus; datum, data; focus, foci; genus, genera; madame, mesdames; nebula, nebulæ; monsieur, messieurs; phenomenon, phenomena.

PECULIAR PLURALS

1. Some **foreign nouns** while keeping their **old plurals** have taken on **English plurals.** Often, while in this transitional state, these diverse forms have different meanings, as: —

cherub, cherubim (mysterious winged beings) and cherubs (beautiful children); genius, genii (spirits) and geniuses (men of genius); index, indices (signs in algebra) and indexes (tables of reference); stamen, stamina (bones of bodies, vigor) and stamens (organs of flowers).

2. Some nouns, **not foreign,** have **two plurals** with **different meanings,** as: —

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native and accusative constantly. *Fēt* being found almost exclusively in the plural, and *fōt* in the singular, the change of ō to ē came to signify plurality, and the superfluous plural endings were dropped.

This change of vowel was caused by an **i** in the endings of the three cases. The transition from ō of the stem to **i** of the ending was harder for the mouth organs to make than that from ē to **i**; and so unconsciously speakers exchanged ō for ē. Like changes were made in the other five nouns above.

This change of a letter caused by one coming after it is variously called **Vowel-Modification, Umlaut,** and **Mutation.**

brother, brothers (by blood) and brethren (of the same society); die, dice (cubes for gaming) and dies (stamps for coining); foot, feet (parts on the body) and foot (infantry); head, heads (parts of the body) and head (cattle); horse, horses (animals) and horse (cavalry); sail, sails (pieces of canvas) and sail (vessels).

3. Some nouns have **one plural** with **diverse meanings**, as: —

color, colors (paints and flags); custom, customs (habits and revenue duties); ground, grounds (lands and dregs); letter, letters (alphabet and literature); manner, manners (ways, behavior); moral, morals (teachings and character); pain, pains (sufferings and care); spectacle, spectacles (shows and glasses).

4. Some words always **plural** in **form** and in **meaning**, as:—

aborigines, annals, assets, lungs, mumps, nippers, pincers, scissors, shears, snuffers, thanks, tongs, tidings, victuals, vitals.

5. Some words **plural in form**, but **singular in meaning**, as: —

acoustics, ethics, mathematics, politics (and other names of sciences ending in *ics*), amends, measles, news.

6. Some **compound nouns vary** the **first word** in the **plural**, as: —

aids-de-camp, *commanders*-in-chief, *courts*-martial, *fathers*-in-law, *hangers*-on, *men*-of-war.

7. **Most compounds vary** the **last** word in the **plural**, as: —

English*men*, fellow-*servants*, goose-*quills*, hand*fuls*, man*traps*, piano*fortes*, step*sons*, tooth*brushes*.

8. Some compounds **vary both parts**, as: —

men-children, men-servants, women-singers, women-servants.

9. Compounds consisting of a **title** and a **proper name vary either**, as: —

the *Misses*[1] Smith or the Miss *Smiths;* the *Drs.* Thomson or the Dr. *Thomsons.*

10. When **used** with **two** or **more names** the **title** is **pluralized**, as: —

Drs. Grimes and Steele, *Messrs.* Maynard, Merrill, & Co., *Generals* Grant and Lee.

11. **Letters, figures,** and **other** characters form the **plural** with the **apostrophe** and **s**, as: —

a's, 2's, —'s, i's, 9's, ×'s, +'s, ½'s.

12. **Abstract nouns** and **names** of **materials generally** have **no plurals**; but they **may have** when they denote **repeated actions, varieties** of **qualities, kinds** of the same **material,** or **things made** out of the **material**, as: —

loves, tremblings, vices, liberties, coffees, wines, oils, silks, tins, irons.

13. The **initial letter** of a word is sometimes **doubled** to form the **abbreviation** of the **plural**, as: —

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[1] If *Mrs.* is used, the name is varied; as, the *Mrs. Clarks.* "In colloquial language, it is usual to say, *the Miss Smiths, the two Doctor Thomsons*, etc., — the construction in the case of *brothers*, etc., being often evaded by saying the *Smith brothers. The Misses Smith* now sounds pedantic, and is liable to cause confusion with *Mrs. Smith.*" — *Sweet.*

LL. in *LL.B.*, in *LL.D.*, and in *LL.M.*, is for the plural of *lex* (*leges*, *legum*), 'laws'; *l.* is for *line*, and *ll.* for *lines*; *p.* for *page*, and *pp.* for *pages*; *M.* (or *Mr.*) for *Mister*, and *MM.* (or *Messieurs*) for the plural; *MS.* for *manuscript*, and *MSS.* for *manuscripts*.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Parts of Speech not on the Same Footing — Wherein? Nouns — Derivation, Classification, and Definitions of. Number. Plural — Regular way, and Irregular ways of forming it. Peculiar Plurals.

Questions. — In what respects are the parts of speech not on the same footing? Roots of nouns denote what? Derivative affixes, what? Inflectional suffixes, what? Base, or stem, what? Illustrate verbal, or predicative, roots with **sku**. Wherein do proper nouns now differ from common? With *truth* and its changes illustrate root, derivative prefixes and suffixes, and inflectional suffixes. Classify and subclassify nouns, and illustrate the several classes. Show how in a minute classification the classes overlap. From what, and with what derivative suffixes, do abstract nouns come? Define the several classes of nouns. A synthetic language, what? An analytic, what? What are modifications of words? What modifications have nouns? Number, what? Define the two numbers. What number has English lost? How is the plural regularly formed? What two languages were influential in making the plural in -s common? Give Jespersen's reasons for making Danish the more influential of the two, and March's remarks upon them. What is the principle governing in the use of -s rather than -es as plural ending? Give and illustrate the three exceptions to this rule. When do we use -es? Give and illustrate the four irregular ways of forming the plural in English. What ones are of O.E. origin? With O.E. *oxa*, *fōt*, and *hūs*, p. 93, illustrate three. Show how, in *fōt* and the other five nouns of its class

in English, a change of internal vowel came to be significant of plurality. What is vowel-modification or umlaut or mutation? Give and illustrate the thirteen kinds of peculiar plurals.

Exercises.—Give the plural of *boy*, *cage*, and *fox*, and the reasons for the plural endings. Give the plural of *volcano*, *life*, and *city*, and the exceptions which govern these plurals. What tendency is illustrated in the pronunciation of *oaths* and *days?* What irregular ways of forming the plural are illustrated in *oxen*, *men*, *sheep*, and *data?* What difference in meaning between the plurals *cherubim* and *cherubs*, *brothers* and *brethren*, *sail* and *sails?* Give the more common nouns that are always plural in form and in meaning, and those that are plural in form but singular in meaning; compound nouns whose first word is pluralized; whose last part is pluralized; both of whose parts are pluralized. Illustrate the pluralizing of letters and figures. Give the abbreviations that double the initial or final letter to form the plural.

CHAPTER VIII

THE NOUN — (*Continued*)

GENDER

THE modification of a noun in English to denote the sex of the object is called **Gender.** The name of a male is of the **Masculine Gender**; that of a female is of the **Feminine Gender**; that of a thing without sex is of the **Neuter Gender**; and that of a thing that may be of either sex is of the **Common Gender.**

Sex belongs to the object; gender, to the noun that names the object. In English,[1] gender follows sex; know-

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[1] In Latin and Greek, and in French, German, etc., gender is **grammatical**—is attributed to nouns without sole or supreme regard to the sex, or the lack of sex, of the objects named.

March and Sayce and Whitney recognize no signs set apart for gender in the theoretic parent-speech of the Indo-European; but it is found established in the earliest remains of languages.

It is agreed that the masculine is the fundamental form, and that the feminine first separated from it. Words possessing long vowels or liquids, or broadening and prolonging the final vowel of the derivative or the declensional ending were thought to represent feminine qualities, and were applied to females. Then other nouns with such endings were classed with these as grammatically feminine, no matter which sex the objects were of, or whether of either. The neuter separated later, and "was not so thorough-going." It is a masculine with the activity left out, having no nominative (actor's) case-sign or sign of counted individuals — plural number.

In O.E., gender was grammatical. "In that vast decay and ruin of grammatical forms which attended the elaboration of Mn.E. out of its Saxon and Norman elements, the distinctive suffixes of gender disappeared along with the rest." Since then gender in English has followed sex.

ing the sex of the object, or its lack of sex, you know the gender of the noun in English that names it.

Definitions

Gender is that modification of a noun or a pronoun which denotes sex.

The Masculine Gender denotes the male sex.

The Feminine Gender denotes the female sex.

The Neuter Gender denotes the lack of sex.

No English nouns now have distinctive neuter forms; but the feminine of a few words is distinguished from the masculine: —

I. **By a different ending of the words.**

The usual feminine ending, and the only one by which new feminines are formed, is **-ess** — added (1) to the full form of the masculine; (2) to the masculine with the vowel of the ending omitted; (3) to the masculine with the full ending omitted; or (4) to the masculine with irregular changes, as: —

(1) count, countess; host, hostess; lion, lioness; prophet, prophetess; shepherd, shepherdess; (2) actor, actress; benefactor, benefactress; hunter,[1] huntress; preceptor, preceptress; waiter, waitress; (3) negro, negress; governor, governess; murderer, murderess; and (4) duke, duchess; emperor, empress; lad, lass; marquis, marchioness; master, mistress.

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[1] **-Er**, originally masculine, now indicates the agent.

The other feminine endings are **-ster,**[1] **-en, -trix, -ine, -ina,** and **-a,** as: —

fox, vixen; executor, executrix; hero, heroine; czar, czarina; don, donna.

II. **By different words in the compound names,** as: —

billy-goat, nanny-goat; gentleman, gentlewoman; grandfather, grandmother; he-bear, she-bear; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; landlord, landlady; milkman, milkmaid; merman, mermaid; man-servant, maid-servant; step-father, step-mother; peacock, peahen.

III. **By words radically or wholly different,** as: —

bachelor, maid[2]; brother, sister; boy, girl[2]; buck, doe; bull, cow; drake, duck; earl, countess; father, mother; gander, goose[2]; husband, wife[2]; king, queen[2]; lord, lady; monk, nun; nephew, niece; ram, ewe; sir, madam; son, daughter; steer, heifer; stag, hind; uncle, aunt; wizard, witch[2].

Gender is chiefly important as involving the correct use of the pronouns *he*, *she*, and *it*.

When a singular noun or pronoun is used for a person of either sex, it is commonly represented by a masculine pronoun, as: —

"Each *visitor* came in *his* carriage"; "Every *one* has *his* faults."

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[1] This gave way to **-ess**; when used now it denotes the agent. *Song*-**str-ess** and *seam*-**str-ess** have double feminine endings. *Spin*-**ster**, with meaning changed, still keeps the feminine force of **-ster**.

[2] Many nouns have changed their meaning and their gender — *maid* and *girl* once named persons of either sex; *goose* is of the common gender; *witch* was once applied to males also. *Wife* and *queen* once meant *woman* simply.

The names of animals are often used without regard to real sex — the speaker employing *he* or *she* according as the animal is thought to have masculine or feminine characteristics, but using *he* more frequently than *she*, as: —

"The *grizzly bear* is the most savage of *his* race"; "The *cat* steals upon *her* prey"; "The *dog* is faithful to *his* master."

The neuter *it* is often used for animals undistinguished for masculine or feminine qualities, and for very young children without regard to real sex, as: —

"When the *deer* is alarmed, *it* makes two or three rapid bounds"; "The little *child* reached out *its* hand."

Inanimate things are often personified by the use of *he* and *she*, as: —

"The *oak* shall send *his* roots abroad"; "*Truth* gets well if *she* is run over by a locomotive."

The principle determining the gender in personification is this: if the thing is notable for strength, size, boldness, or majesty, the masculine *he* is used; if for grace, beauty, timidity, gentleness, or productiveness, the feminine *she*. Only in languages where, as in English, gender is no longer grammatical, is this figure, which adds interest to things and animation to style, possible.

Number and gender are modifications affecting the meaning of nouns and pronouns — number almost always indicated by form; gender, sometimes. But there are

modifications of nouns and pronouns that refer to relations; namely, **person** and **case**.

The person of nouns is not indicated by form, that of certain pronouns is; one case of nouns is, all the cases of certain pronouns are.

PERSON

(1) "*I*, your *friend*, will answer that"; (2) *You*, my *friend*, may answer that"; (3) My *friend* has gone, *he* went yesterday."

I and *friend* in (1) denote the speaker; *you* and *friend* in (2) denote the one spoken to; *friend* and *he* in (3) denote the one spoken of. These three relations of nouns and pronouns to the discourse constitute the modification called **Person.**

I and *friend* are of the **First Person**; *you* and *friend* are of the **Second Person**; *friend* and *he* are of the **Third Person** — the pronouns changing to express the three persons, but the noun *friend* remaining the same in form.

Definitions

Person is that modification of a noun or pronoun which denotes the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one[1] spoken of.

The First Person denotes the one speaking.

The Second Person denotes the one spoken to.

The Third Person denotes the one[1] spoken of.

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[1] By *one* we mean a mere thing as well as a creature.

When the subject of a sentence is of the first or of the second person, it is, as we have just seen, a pronoun; a noun used as subject is always of the third person.

We consider the person of a noun or pronoun because verbs have inflections which must be made to agree with the persons of their subjects, as: —

"I read"; "Thou read-**est**"; "He read-**s**."[1]

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Gender — Origin, Grammatical, Kinds, Definitions of. Feminine Nouns distinguished from Masculine. Feminine Endings. Gender in Personification. Person.

Questions. — Define gender. How many genders? Distinction between sex and gender? Grammatical gender, what? When lost in English? Development of the feminine and neuter? The three ways by which some feminines are distinguished from the masculines? Illustrate. Illustrate the changed stems to which -ess is added. Give and illustrate the feminine endings. The two words with double feminine endings. Gender chiefly important for what? When *he* and when *she* used for names of animals? and when *it?* What governs the gender of the personifying pronoun? What is person? The three persons? Definitions? What part of speech is the subject if of first or second person? Of what person must the subject be if a noun? The person of a noun or pronoun important, why?

Exercises. — Form the feminine of *host*, *actor*, *negro*, *duke*, *governor*, *lad*, *master*, *executor*, *hero*, *gentleman*, *milkman*, *merman*,

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[1] This -s is the almost invariable ending of the third person singular of the verb expressing present action or being.

step-father, *bachelor*, *drake*, *earl*, *husband*, *lord*, *nephew*, *steer*, *uncle*, *wizard*. Insert the proper pronouns in these blanks: —

"Belgium's capital had gathered there —— beauty and —— chivalry"; "The sparrow trills —— song"; "The elephant is noted for —— strength"; "The child was unconscious of —— danger"; "Every person has —— faults"; "The wild beast from —— cover sprang, the wild bird from —— grove"; "The fox is noted for —— cunning"; "Truth is fearless, yet —— is meek"; "Spring comes forth to do —— work."

CHAPTER IX

THE NOUN—(*Continued*)

CASE

"If a slave's lungs breathe our air, that moment he is free."

In this sentence the noun *lungs* represents something as performing an act; the noun *air* represents something as receiving an act; and the noun *slave's* and the pronoun *our* represent persons as possessing something.

The different offices of nouns and pronouns in a sentence constitute the modification called **Case.**[1] *Lungs* and *he*, used as subjects, are in the **Nominative Case**; *air*, used as object complement, is in the **Objective Case**; and *slave's* and *our*, used to denote possession, are in the **Possessive Case.** The only noun case with case-ending is the possessive.

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[1] The Latin *casus* means variation from the primary form, and strictly can be applied only to the non-upright, or **oblique** cases.

In our family there were eight cases — the nominative, the accusative, the vocative, the genitive, the locative, the dative, the ablative, and the instrumental — coming into use, it is thought, in the order here given. The nominative was subject; the accusative, object; the vocative, the form of address; the genitive stood for the relations denoted by our *of;* the locative, by *in;* the dative, by *to* or *for;* the ablative, by *from;* and the instrumental, by *with* or *by*. These cases were marked by inflections.

Many of them employed prepositions to help make their relations more definite. In different languages, in the same language, the same relations were often denoted by different cases. This and the tendency to simplification aided the prepositions in supplanting some cases and in narrowing the scope of others.

Definitions

Case is that modification of a noun or pronoun which denotes its office in the sentence.

Declension is the arrangement of the cases of nouns and pronouns in the two numbers.

MODERN ENGLISH NOUNS DECLINED

	SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Nom.	lord,	lord-s,	lady,	ladi-es,	man,	men,
Pos.	lord-'s,	lord-s',	lady-'s,	ladi-es',	man-'s,	men-'s,
Obj.	lord;	lord-s.	lady;	ladi-es.	man;	men.

OLD ENGLISH NOUNS DECLINED

The Vowel[1] Declension

Singular

	MASCULINE		FEMININE		NEUTER	
Nom.	hlāford,	fōt,	gif-u,	brȳd,	scip,	hūs,
Gen.	hlāford-es,	fōt-es,	gif-e,	brȳd-e,	scip-es,	hūs-es,
Dat.	hlāford-e,	fēt,	gif-e,	brȳd-e,	scip-e,	hūs-e,
Acc.	hlāford;	fōt;	gif-e;	brȳd;	scip;	hūs;

Plural

Nom.	hlāford-as,	fēt,	gif-a(-e),	brȳd-a(-e),	scip-u,	hūs,
Gen.	hlāford-a,	fōt-a,	gif-ena(-a),	brȳd-a,	scip-a,	hūs-a,
Dat.	hlāford-um,	fōt-um,	gif-um,	brȳd-um,	scip-um,	hūs-um,
Acc.	hlāford-as.	fēt.	gif-a(-e).	brȳd-a(-e).	scip-u.	hūs.

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[1] Called *vowel* declension because of the vowel originally added to the radical syllable to form the stem; called *consonant* declension from the n-ending of the primitive stem.

With an occasional exception, the nouns of the vowel declension are inflected as are the six above: *hlāford*, 'lord'; *fōt*, 'foot'; *gifu*, 'gift'; *brȳd*, 'bride'; *scip*,

THE CONSONANT DECLENSION

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	ox-a,[1]	ox-an,
Gen.	ox-an,	ox-ena,
Dat.	ox-an,	ox-um,
Acc.	ox-an;	ox-an.

Remarks. —1. The O.E. declensions above illustrate our ways of forming the plural—*hlāford*-as (-es, -s), the regular way; *ox*-an (-en), the first irregular way; *fēt* (ē our *ee*), the second; and *hūs*, the third.

2. They illustrate our possessive ending. The genitive -es of the masculine and neuter, vowel declension, is our (-'s)—the apostrophe to be accounted for later.

3. They show that O.E. is highly inflected—almost every case having an ending, though not always one exclusively its own, and almost every case in the plural having a plural sign. Of these O.E. inflections, only the plural -as and the genitive -es, both changed, remain.

4. The endings disappeared in this way and order: (1) -um became -on; (2) even before 1066, -a, -o, and -u weakened to obscure -e; (3) the final -n sloughed off; and then (4) the -e final, except where, as in *house*, *horse*, etc., the dative -e of *hūs*, *hors*, etc., is retained throughout. During the M.E. period, these changes were completed, leaving us only the -as and -es spoken of in 3.

5. This decay of inflections is explicable. The endings were unaccented, and hence indistinctly pronounced. This merged the sound, and then the form, of final -a, -o, and -u, into -e. Final unaccented syllables often drop off, especially when pronounced by those to

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'ship'; and *hūs*, 'house.' The nouns of the consonant declension are inflected like *oxa*, 'ox,' except that feminines have -e instead of -a in the nominative singular; and the neuters have -e instead of -a and -an in the nominative and accusative singular.

[1] See p. 88 for the pronunciation of these O.E. words.

whom the language is not native. This happened to the Latin in becoming French; it happened to O.E. in becoming Mn.E. This dropping was aided by the fact that in neither number were the endings any longer significant of case — different cases having the same ending, and some cases being without distinct functions.

6. But this decay was stubbornly resisted by the two -s-endings, because they denote "those syntactical relations which are most distinctive and indispensable in language." French and Danish influence helped to generalize these as our plural, and our possessive, sign — both languages aiding to make universal in Mn.E. what was only partial in O.E.

DEFINITIONS

The Subject of a sentence names that of which something is thought.

The Attribute Complement of a sentence completes the predicate and belongs to the subject.

Case is that modification of a noun or pronoun which denotes its office in the sentence.

The Nominative Case of a noun or pronoun denotes its office as subject or as attribute complement.

While case denotes the office of a substantive in the sentence, not every office of it has a separate case. The nominative and the objective, especially, have each many offices.

THE NOMINATIVE[1] CASE

1. The main office of the nominative case is as **subject.** *Lungs* and *he,* in the opening sentence of the chapter, illustrate this office.

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[1] *Nominative* means *naming*, and every case of a noun names something. But the chief office of the nominative is to name that of which something is asserted.

2. A substantive used **independently** — (1) by **address**, (2) by **exclamation**, (3) by **pleonasm**, (4) in an **absolute phrase** — is said to be in the nominative case, as: —

(1) "*Cromwell*,[1] I charge thee, fling away ambition"; (2) "*Traitor!* who calls me this?" (3) "The *smith*, a mighty man is he"; (4) "His *argument*[2] finished, Mr. Webster stood for some minutes in silence before the court."

3. A substantive used as **explanatory modifier**[3] — explaining by adding another name of the thing — is in the nominative if the word it explains is, as: —

"Washington, the *father* of his country, *he*, our first *President*, left us his imperishable Farewell Address."

4. A substantive used as **attribute complement**[4] of a finite verb — a verb with mode, tense, number, and person — is in the nominative case, as: —

"All attainable health is a *duty*; all avoidable disease seems a *sin*."

5. A substantive used as **attribute complement of a participle or of an infinitive** is nominative if the substantive to which it relates is, as: —

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[1] There being in English no **vocative** case, or case of address, its office is taken by the nominative.

[2] This **absolute construction** is expressed by different cases in different languages — by the genitive in Greek, the ablative in Latin, the dative in O.E. For the **absolute phrase as modifier**, see chapter VI.

[3] If preferred, the **explanatory modifier** may be called an **appositive**, or a **noun in apposition**.

[4] If preferred, **subjective complement** may be used instead of **attribute complement**.

"Chosen *leader* (or as *leader*) he at once took command"; "Called to be *leader*, he did not shrink from leading."

6. When the **assumed subject of a participle** is a **possessive**, the **attribute complement** is nominative, as: —

"Its being *he*, the long-expected Blücher, gave Wellington great joy."

7. When the **participle** or **infinitive** is used without an **assumed subject**, its **attribute complement** is nominative, as: —

"Being only a *voter* is not being a *citizen*"; "To be *he* is to be a *patriot*."

THE POSSESSIVE CASE

Our possessive case of nouns, the only one with case-ending, succeeded to the O.E. genitive, but represents it inadequately.

The **O.E. genitive** denotes measure, material, separation, time, cause, means, manner, and partition, as well as possession — it is even used with prepositions. The **possessive case indicates possession** principally. While theoretically every noun has a possessive, in use the case is almost restricted[1] to nouns denoting persons, animals that may be said to possess, and things personified.

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[1] The exception consists chiefly of nouns indicating measure of some kind, principally of time; as, "*day's* journey"; "a *month's* pay"; "an *hour's* drive"; "five *minutes'* walk"; "a *week's* work"; "ten *cents'* worth"; and "a *hair's* breadth."

Even with nouns denoting persons the idea of possession may be taken too literally. In "*John's being* absent," "*Henry's neighbor*," "the *man's master*," it is connection of some kind, rather than possession, that is implied. See Professor Hadley's *English Possessive Case* in *Essays Philological and Critical*.

When the case inflection **-es** ceased to be a distinct syllable, the **e** began to drop out, and the **apostrophe**[1] took its place. Subsequently the apostrophe was placed after the **-s** of the possessive plural to distinguish this from the other cases of the plural.

DEFINITION. — **The Possessive Case of a noun or pronoun denotes its office as possessive modifier.**

RULE. — **The Possessive Case of nouns is formed in the singular, by adding to the nominative the apostrophe and *s* ('*s*)[2]; in the plural, by adding the apostrophe (') only.**[3]

The substantive in the possessive, like the substantive explanatory, modifies a noun, and so takes upon itself the

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[1] Whether to denote the omission of **e**, or to distinguish the possessive singular from the cases of the plural is not certain — probably the latter.

By the beginning of the eighteenth century, the use of the apostrophe was fully established, Professor Lounsbury thinks. See his *English Language, The Noun.*

[2] Some have thought this **-s** a remnant of *his*. Phrases like "Mars *his* sword," "the prince *his* players," common in Old and in Middle English, give countenance to this error recently revived. But Professor Hadley, in the article *English Possessive Case*, in his *Essays Philological and Critical*, has demonstrated that the O.E. termination **-es** exists in our possessive ending to-day.

Professor Jespersen's remarks are instructive. He holds that *his* was a species of anacoluthon resulting from the speaker's beginning with some prominent word in thought, whose construction he had not determined, so that a correcting pronoun in the possessive was needed after it, especially if a clause or a long phrase followed the word, as in "It shall come to pass that the *man whom I shall choose, his* rod shall bend"; "But *he, the chieftain of them all, his* sword hangs rusting on the wall."

Then, when the pronoun immediately follows the antecedent; as, "This misshapen *knave, his* master, was a witch." The transition from this use of *his* to that in "Mars *his* sword" would be natural — as also the supposed identification of **-'s** with *his*. In other languages than English this form of expression is current.

[3] The **apostrophe** and **s** ('s) are used after the few plurals not ending in **-s** — *men*'s, *children*'s, etc.

office of an adjective. But both name or denote things, and both are modified by adjectives and not by adverbs. They represent the two kinds of noun modifiers — (1) the **possessive**, and (2) the **explanatory**, or **appositive**.

To avoid hissing sounds, the **-s** of the possessive singular may be omitted, as: —

"Conscience' sake"; "Goodness' sake"; "Achilles' sword."

But the **-s** is retained, and pronounced as **es**, when the ear needs its help to identify the words as possessives, as: —

"Mrs. *Hemans*'s poetry"; "*James*'s hat"; "*Prince*'s estate."

1. When (1) several possessives modify the same word and imply joint possession, the sign is added to the last noun only. But, (2) if they modify different nouns, expressed or implied, or, while implying joint possession, they represent the possessors, (3) as separate, or (4) as mutually opposed — in all four cases the sign is added to each, as: —

(1) "Mason and *Dixon*'s line"; (2) "To cut *your*, *John*'s, and each *other*'s throat"; (3) "He was his *father*'s, *mother*'s, and *sister*'s favorite"; (4) "It was the *servant*'s, as well as the *master*'s, right.

2. When the word modified by the possessive is expressed, the noun explanatory of the possessive does not take the possessive sign, as: —

"I am not of *Percy*'s[1] mind, the *Hotspur*[1] of the North, *he* that

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[1] In O.E., both these nouns would be in the genitive, as in "On *Herod*-**es** dagum, *cyning*-**es**," — 'In *Herod*'s, the *king*'s days.'

kills me some six or seven dozen of Scots"; "Thou fearest to meet *Balder*'s[1] voice, thy *brother*, whom through folly thou didst slay."

3. When the modified word is understood, then (1) the explanatory noun alone has the possessive sign, or (2) both the explanatory noun and the noun explained have it; but (3) only the noun explained has it if the explanatory noun is modified by a phrase, as:—

(1) "I left the book at Smith, the *bookseller*'s"; (2) "I left it at *Smith*'s, the *bookseller*'s"; (3) "I left it at *Smith*'s, the bookseller in Henry Street."

4. When a proper noun in the possessive is preceded by a title, only the noun takes the sign—and this, whether the noun modified by the possessive is expressed or understood, as:—

"*Duke John*'s cousin"; "My *friend Moore*'s sake"; "Left at *Captain Moore*'s."

5. Compound nouns, and group-compounds treated as such, add the sign to the last word only, as:—

"Henry the *Eighth*'s reign"; "The Queen of *Spain*'s throne"; "The man-of-*war*'s sails"; "The commander-in-*chief*'s order."[2]

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[1] Notice that this sentence from Matthew Arnold and the one below from Shakespeare show that a noun in the possessive may be the antecedent of a relative pronoun—"As if it were *Cain*'s jawbone *that* did the first murder." For the possessive of pronouns so used, see p. 118, foot-note 2.

[2] Such word-groups as *Queen of Spain* and *man-of-war* were once separable. Till the fifteenth century, *Queen of Spain*'s *throne* would have been (the apostrophe apart) *Queen's throne of Spain*. We do not treat such groups quite as units now, we pluralize the first noun of the group instead of the last—*Queens* of Spain, *men*-of-war.

I. The plural sign varies in form, effect, and position. 1. Ordinarily it is (1) -s, as

The possessive may be ambiguous — (1) subjective, or active, (2) objective, or passive. In

(1) "The *pugilist's* blow was heavy"; (2) "*My* present cost less than *yours*,"

(1) may be said of the blow the pugilist gave or got, and (2), of the gifts we sent or received.

The preposition *of* with the objective may be used instead of the possessive. We may say

"*Paul's* letters" or "The letters of Paul"[1]; "*Somebody else's* name" or "The name *of somebody else*"; "A doctor of *divinity's*

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in *boy*-s; (2) sometimes it is -es, as in *box*-es; (3) a vowel change, as in *feet*; (4) -en, as in *ox*-en; (5) wanting, as in *sheep*; (6) almost anything, as in *cherub*-im, *termin*-i, *formul*-æ, and *dat*-a. 2. It often changes the stem of the noun, as in *cit*-i-es and *loa*-v-es. 3. It is not stationary — is added (1) to the first word of a compound, as in *father*-s-in-law; (2) to the second, as in maid-*servant*-s; (3) belongs to both, as in *men-singer*-s.

II. But the possessive sign is always the same in form, effect, and place. 1. In form, as in (1) *boy*-'s, (2) *box*-'s, (3) *foot*-'s, (4) *ox*-'s, (5) *sheep*-'s, (6) *seraph*-'s. 2. It causes no change in the stem, as in *city*-'s, *loaf*-'s. If dropped in a few words, as in *conscience' sake*, the apostrophe remains to identify the case. We even extend the apostrophe to the possessive plural in -s', as in *boy*-s'; and the -'s to plurals not in -s, as in *men*'s. 3. The possessive sign is fixed in position. It stands immediately before the noun which the possessive modifies — even when, as in *somebody else*-'s and *men-of-war*-'s, it is not annexed to that part which really names the possessor.

A sufficient reason for the inconstant position of the plural sign and the fixed form and position of the possessive is this: pluralizing a noun does not disturb its syntactical relations; converting it into a possessive does; and we must know not only the possessive modifier but the word it modifies. Of this we are certain only when the two words come together.

Many of the endings, offices, and positions of the O.E. genitive are now lost. Its heir, the modern possessive, has one ending, one office, and one position.

[1] But we would not say, "This is the house *of John*." If we use an appositive, however, we may say, "This is the house *of* my *nephew John*."

wife" or "The wife *of a doctor of divinity*"; "*Our* all coming together" or "The coming together *of us* all."

But *of* and the objective may, like the possessive, be ambiguous. In

(1) "The fear *of* the *enemy*"; (2) "The care *of* his *father*"; (3) "The love *of God*,"

(1) may mean the fear the enemy felt or the fear they caused; (2) his care for his father or his father's care for him; and (3) our love for God or God's love for us.

The possessive has other equivalents than *of* with the objective. We may say

"*Some one else's* mistake" or "A mistake *made by some one else*"; "My wife's *father's* house" or "The house *belonging to* my wife's *father*"; *Your* love and *his*" or "The love *you and he cherish*"; "*An hour's* chat" or "A chat *for an hour*"; "The *king's* enemies" or "The enemies the *king has*."

Often, ambiguity is avoided by placing the assumed subject of the nounal verb in the possessive, as: —

"The *writer's*[1] *being* a scholar is not doubted"; "No one ever heard of the *man's having been beaten*."

THE OBJECTIVE CASE

"James seized."

Here the predicate does not completely assert the act performed. If we add a noun, and say

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[1] "The *writer* being a scholar is not doubted" is ambiguous; it may mean that because he is a scholar he is not doubted, or simply that his scholarship is not doubted.

"James seized a *rope*,"

we complete the predicate by naming that which receives the act. Whatever fills out, or completes, is a **Complement.** As *rope* completes the expression of the act by naming the thing acted upon, — the **object,** — we call it the **Object Complement.**

DEFINITION. — **The Object Complement of a sentence completes the predicate, and names that which receives the act.**

All nouns and pronouns so used are in the **Objective Case.**

Connected objects completing the same verb form a **Compound Object Complement,** as: —

"James saw *hawks* and *mice* and nimble, frolicsome *squirrels*."

Prepositions in English are **used** with the **objective case.** This case discharges some of the functions of the O.E. genitive and all of the O.E. dative and accusative.

DEFINITION. — **The Objective Case of a noun or pronoun denotes its office as object complement, or as principal word in a prepositional phrase.**

Many nouns in the objective case may follow (1) a **single preposition**; and the same noun or nouns may follow (2) **two prepositions** or (3) a **preposition** and a transitive **verb,** as: —

(1) "Sanitary reform is a sacred crusade *against dirt*, *degradation*, *disease*, and *death*"; (2) "Bryant's residence in the city had enlarged his knowledge *of*, and deepened his interest *in*, the *ways* and

doings of men"; (3) "**That** *which* **Wordsworth** *loved* and aimed *at* and sought to *represent* will always be to some the object of genuine dislike."

Some verbs take not only a direct object but an **indirect,** or **dative, object** — both in the **Objective Case,** as: —

"She gave[1] *him* a book"; "The plumbers made[1] *me* a visit."

In Latin and in O.E., the dative of the personal pronoun was sometimes almost redundant, and was called the **Ethical Dative.** Whenever this expletive use of the pronoun is found in M.E. and later, it is in the **Objective Case,** as: —

"He that kills *me* some six or seven dozen of Scots"; "One Colonna cuts *me* the throat of Orsini's baker."

Some nouns denoting the time at or during which, denoting value, direction, distance, weight, quantity — **measure of almost any kind** — are used **adverbially** in the **Objective Case** without a preposition, as: —

"One *day*, I stood some *time* scarcely twenty *feet* from the mother crow"; "They went a *part* of the way *home* with him"; "Wheat weighs[2] sixty *pounds* a *bushel*"; "It is worth five *dollars* a *yard*."

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[1] Some of the other verbs followed by indirect objects are *buy*, *send*, *promise*, *ask*, *pay*, *bring*, *offer*, *permit*, *sell*, *tell*, *teach*, *show*, and *yield*. With some of them, as *ask*, in "I *asked him* a question," the indirect object sustains to the verb more of an ablative relation than a dative — ask *from* rather than ask *at*.

If we change the order of the two objects, a preposition must be supplied — "She gave him money," "She gave money *to* him"; but, when the indirect precedes the direct, no preposition is expressed or understood.

[2] As Wrightson observes, some of these verbs have different meanings, and are followed by different objects — some **adverbial** and some **direct**; as, "A barrel of flour *weighs* 196 *pounds*" and "The grocer *weighed* the *flour*"; "He *measures* five *feet*, nine *inches*" and "He *measures* the *circumference* of the tree"; "The tub *holds* five *gallons*" and "He *holds* the *knife* between his thumb and finger."

Certain verbs, called **factitives** — *facere*, to 'make' — because they express the idea of making, may be followed by a second object denoting that into which the verb converts the first. This factitive[1] verb may represent the making, as (1) **actual**; (2) **declared**; or (3) only **thought of**. The second object, like the first, is in the **Objective Case**, and is called the **Objective Complement**. Some of the verbs so used are: —

(1) create, make, appoint, cause; (2) proclaim, prove, declare, name, call; (3) choose, esteem, regard, consider, deem, think, as: —

"President Garfield *made* Lowell *Minister* to England"; We *call* Benedict Arnold a *traitor*"; "We *regard*, or *consider*, public office a public *trust*, or as a public *trust*."

DEFINITION. — **The Objective Complement completes the predicate and belongs to the object complement.**

A noun or pronoun **explanatory** of a **noun** in the **objective** case is **itself** in the **objective**, as: —

"They hanged André, *him* that was concerned in the Arnold treason."

A noun or pronoun used as attribute complement of an infinitive is in the objective if the word of which it is an attribute is, as: —

"They proved the thief to be *him* that stands there."

If the assumed subject of an infinitive is omitted — when it and the subject of the principal verb would denote the same person — the **attribute complement** of the infinitive is in the **Objective Case**, as: —

"I wish (me or myself) to be *him*."

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[1] For a fuller account of the *factitive* object and of the *indirect*, see chapter VI.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Case — Declension — Modern English and Old English. Remarks thereon. The Nominative Case — Uses. The Possessive Case. Its Sign — Position of. Objective Case — Offices.

Questions. — Case, what? The cases, what? Strictly applicable only to what? The eight cases of our family of languages? What part of speech gradually supplanted some cases and narrowed others? Declension? Decline *lord*, *lady*, *man*. The two O.E. declensions? The O.E. noun endings disappeared how? What ones does Mn.E. retain? What footing did these have in O.E.? What languages helped to generalize these in Mn.E.? Definition of subject, attribute complement, case, and nominative case. The seven uses of the nominative? The main use, what? The four uses of independent substantives? How is the absolute construction expressed in other languages? By what other names may explanatory modifier and attribute complement be called? The O.E. genitive denotes what? The possessive case indicates what? Almost restricted to what nouns? Exception? The two accounts of the introduction of the apostrophe? When fully established? Extended to the possessive plural, why? Definition of possessive case? Rule for? Why the possessive and the explanatory substantive not adjectives? When the possessive ending -s omitted? What error respecting this -s? Jespersen's remarks upon it. With what possessive plurals is -'s used? Give the special cases requiring or forbidding the use of the possessive sign. Show that in six ways the plural sign is not the same; in what ways it changes the stem of the noun; wherein it is not stationary. Show that the possessive sign is always the same; does not change the stem of the noun; is fixed in position. Account for the inconstant position of the plural sign and the fixed position of the possessive sign. Show that the possessive may be ambiguous. What may take its place? Show how the substitute may be ambiguous. What other

substitutes may the possessive have? Show how the possessive sign may often prevent ambiguity. What is a complement? An object complement? A compound object complement? The objective case? The functions of what O.E. cases does the objective case discharge? A noun in the objective may follow what? An indirect, or dative, object, what? What verbs used with such objects? The ethical dative, what? Nouns denoting what are adverbial? The case of such nouns, what? Factitive verbs, what? Objective complement, what? After what classes of verbs used? When the explanatory noun in the objective case? When the attribute complement?

Exercises. — Study the table, p. 33, of O.E. sounds and pronounce the O.E. nouns of the paradigms, p. 93. Take *hlāford*, *scip*, and *oxa*, and illustrate the disappearance of most O.E. noun endings, and the retention of those we keep. Explain the possessive sign in "a month's pay," "a hair's breadth." Give the reasons for the possessive sign, and for the lack of it, in the italicized words of these expressions: "*Mason* and *Dixon's* line"; "His *father's*, *mother's*, and *sister's* favorite"; "I am not of *Percy's* mind, the *Hotspur* of the North"; "I left my watch at *Smith's*, the *jeweler's*"; "I left it at *Smith's*, the *jeweler* on Henry Street; "My *friend Moore's* sake"; "At *Captain Moore's*"; "*Henry* the *Eighth's* reign." Show the ambiguity in "*My* present cost less than *yours*"; "The fear *of* the enemy"; "The love *of* God"; "The *writer being* a scholar is not doubted." Illustrate, with your own sentences, the object complement, the dative object, the ethical dative, the objective complement, and nouns used adverbially in the objective case.

CHAPTER X

THE PRONOUN

PRONOUNS are words that do substantially what nouns do but yet differ radically from them. Nouns are derived from roots that express actions and qualities; pronouns, from roots that denote relations. The roots of nouns seize upon the features of things and name the things from them; the roots of pronouns seize upon the relations of things and designate the things by them.

According as the speaker changes his relation to things, or conceives their relation to each other to change, he may successively apply to them many of the pronouns.

Every person may in succession be designated by *I*, or *you*, or *one;* every male, by *he;* every female, by *she*. To the same things, taken separately, we may, as their local relations shift, apply *this*, *that*, the *former*, the *latter;* and of them, taken in mass, we may say *these*, *those*, *some*, *others*, *they*, etc.

A pronoun may be so vague as to indicate any one or number of a class, or a possible being or action, and at the same time so definite as to have another pronoun refer to it for its meaning and stand for it, as: —

> "*They that* fly can fight again;
> *Which he* can never do *that*'s slain."

Though not naming, as nouns do, a pronoun may be used instead of a noun to designate anything; it is, therefore, fitly called a **pronoun.**

DEFINITION. — **A Pronoun is a word used for a noun.**

Remarks. — While pronouns are substitutes for nouns, enabling us (1) to speak of things whose names we do not know, or (2) knowing, we do not wish to tell; (3) to avoid repetitions; and (4) to speak with brevity; yet to say of them that they are substitutes for nouns is to say little.[1]

1. A difference between nouns and pronouns is implanted in their very roots. While in some sense nouns describe, pronouns merely point out. Gestures could take the place of many pronouns.

2. While some nouns, as *man*, *thing*, *substance*, are of general application, pronouns are still more so. Any person, even an animal or a mere thing personified, may use *I* for himself, *you* for the one or ones addressed, and *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they*, for the person or persons, the thing or things, spoken of; and all creatures and things, except the speaker and the one spoken to, are in this last class.

3. Pronouns tell little. Some betray the speaker's complete ignorance. In "*Who* went?" "*Which* of them did you see?" the questioner is inquiring for whom *who* stands, and what the word

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[1] Some **minor differences** between nouns and pronouns are these: 1. Our only words that **retain grammatical gender** are the pronouns *he*, *she*, and *it*.

2. Our only words that have **distinctive nominative** or **objective forms** are pronouns — **nominative I, we thou, ye, she, he, they,** and **who**; **objective me, us, thee, him, her** (possessive also), **them,** and **whom.**

3. Some words **whose plurals** are **wholly unlike** the corresponding cases of the **singular** are pronouns — **we** and **I, ye** or **you** and **thou, they** and **he, she, it.**

4. Our only words whose **possessives singular** are **irregular** (1) in **having no apostrophe** before the **-s,** or (2) in having **neither apostrophe nor -s,** are pronouns — **his, hers, its, ours, yours,** and **theirs**; **my, mine, our, your, thy, thine, their, her.**

5. Our only **double possessives** are pronouns — **hers, ours, theirs, yours,**

which denotes. To what does *it* refer in "*It* snows"; "How is *it* with me when every noise appals me?"

4. It is easy to find a name for a thing with qualities; not easy to coin a word for a thing distinguished from other things by shifting relations. Consequently pronouns, when formed, abide. Many of ours survive in the several languages of our family — a common inheritance from the primitive Indo-European.

5. Some pronouns stand for a phrase, a clause, or a sentence, as: — (1) "*To live, that* was all he asked"; (2) "*It* is doubtful *whether Mars is inhabited*"; (3) "*He is wanting in taste, which* means that he is uncultivated"; (4) "*Ought he to enlist?* I can't answer *that.*"

That in (1) stands for a phrase, and in (4) for a sentence. *It* and *which* in (2) and (3) stand for clauses.

6. Retaining its office as connective, a pronoun, as *which*, may, as an adjective, accompany its noun; as, "I craved his pardon, *which* pardon he granted me."

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

I, thou, you, he, she, and *it* — words that by their form denote the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of — are called **Personal Pronouns.** Adding *self* to certain cases of these — *my, thy, him, her,* and *it* — and *selves* to other forms, as *our, your,* and *them,* we have what are called **Compound Personal Pronouns.**

Who, which, and *what,* used in asking questions, are called **Interrogative Pronouns.**

Who, which, what, and *that,* introducing clauses, relating to words in other clauses, and binding clauses together, are called **Relative Pronouns.** Adding *ever* and *soever* to *who, which,* and *what,* we have the **Compound Relative Pronouns.**

Words that denote things by pointing them out, or by telling something of their number, order, or quantity, are called **Adjective Pronouns.** The more common of these are

all, another, any, both, each, either, enough, few, former, latter, little, many, much, neither, none, one, other, same, several, some, such, that, these, this,[1] those, whole.

The word, phrase, or clause in place of which a pronoun is used is called an **Antecedent.**

Definitions

A Personal Pronoun is a pronoun that by its form denotes the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of.

An Interrogative Pronoun[2] is one with which a question is asked.

A Relative Pronoun is one that relates to some preceding word or words and connects clauses.

An Adjective Pronoun is one that performs the offices of an adjective and a noun.

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[1] *This*, *that*, *these*, and *those* are also called **Demonstrative Pronouns**.

All, *any*, *both*, *each*, *either*, *many*, *one*, *other*, etc., are also called **Indefinite Pronouns** because they do not particularize as do the demonstratives.

Each other and *one another* are called **Reciprocal Pronouns**.

Each, *either*, and *neither* are also called **Distributives**.

But that *brave*, *good*, etc., in the phrases, *the brave*, *the good*, etc., describe, we should call them *adjective pronouns*. They may be treated as nouns, or as adjectives modifying nouns understood.

[2] Interrogatives introducing indirect questions are not easily distinguished from relatives whose antecedents are suppressed. In "I know *who* spoke and *what* he said," *who spoke* and *what he said* are indirect questions and *who* and *what* are interrogatives. In "I saw *what* took place and *what* he did," *what* and *what* are relatives.

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS

Personal Pronouns

	First Person.		*Sec. Person.*		*Sec. Person—old form*	
	SING.	PLU.	SING.	PLU.	SING.	PLU.
Nom.	I,	we,[1]	you,[2]	you,	thou,	ye *or* you,
Pos.	my *or* mine,[3]	our *or* ours,[4]	your *or* yours,	your *or* yours,	thy *or* thine,	your *or* yours,
Obj.	me;	us.	you;	you.	thee;	you.

[1] In strictness, *we* can hardly be the plural of *I*, for *I* does not admit of plurality. *We* = *I* + *you*, *I* + *he*, etc.

[2] A remarkable difference between the classical and the modern languages is seen in the pronoun of address — the modern using the plural where the ancient and the O.E. used the singular. In English, the plural began to supplant the singular during the second half of the thirteenth century, and by the middle of the sixteenth it was the standard for polite conversation, *thou* being reserved for relatives, intimates, and inferiors. Applied to strangers, *thou* was a term of insult. Elizabethan literature is full of *thou* in these various uses. Down to the close of the eighteenth century, *thou* was still used in addressing relatives and intimates, but is now restricted to prayer and to poetry — except in the language of the Quakers.

[3] *Mine*, *ours*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs* are used when the name of the thing possessed is omitted; as, "This book is *mine* or *yours*"; "*Hers* or *theirs* or *ours* is lost." *Mine* and *thine* were once used before a vowel sound; as, "*Thine* enemy," "*Mine* honor."

"A friend *of mine* or *of his*," etc. presents a noteworthy idiom. Some suggest that *of* here is partitive, and that the expression is equal to "A friend *of my friends* or *of his friends*," etc. But such idiomatic phrases as, "This *heart of mine*," "That *wife of yours*," cannot thus be accounted for.

Others suggest that *possessing* is understood after these possessives. Still others, that *of* marks identity, as in "City *of New York*." Professor Hadley remarks, "We may regard the possessives, when thus used, as depending on a general indeterminate conception of that which is possessed . . . the collective totality" of the things possessed.

This idiom enables us to make an important distinction — that between "A picture *of his*" and "A picture *of him*." Nouns are used in the same way — "That house *of my brother's*," "A poem *of Pope's*."

[4] The -s in *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs*, is the -s of *his* and *its* extended by analogy to *our*, *your*, *her*, and *their*, already possessive — so that *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs* are double possessives.

	Third Person Mas.		*Third Person Fem.*		*Third Person Neut.*	
	SING.	PLU.	SING.	PLU.	SING.	PLU.
Nom.	he,	they,	she,	they,	it,[1]	they,
Pos.	his,[2]	their *or* theirs,	her *or* hers,	their *or* theirs,	its,[3]	their *or* theirs,
Obj.	him;	them.	her;	them.[4]	it;	them.

[1] Besides being a substitute for nouns, *it* has vague uses — **pointing forward** or **backward** to **infinitives** and **other phrases** and even to **clauses**; as, "*It* is sweet *to live*"; "*To live — it* is all I ask"; "*It* is delightful, *this living thus*"; "*This life at home — it* is heaven"; "*It* is known *that he stole*"; "*That is true* and you know *it*."

[2] Both in prose and in poetry pronouns in the possessive may have pronouns relating to them; as, "*Their* sorrows shall be multiplied *that* hasten after another God"; "I was a silent spectator while *his* body was laid here . . . *who* more deeply than any other had penetrated the thinking of mankind"; "*Her* worthiness *that* gave the ring."

The noun in the possessive is sometimes so used, as in "From the trees spun down the canker-worms . . . upon each *woman's* bonnet, shawl, and gown, *who* shook them off." See p. 100, foot-note 1.

There is no reason why, if the meaning be kept clear, the antecedents of relative pronouns may not be in the possessive case as well as in any other. Usage certainly allows it.

[3] *Its* is our only personal pronoun form not found in O.E. *His* was the genitive of the masculine *hē* and of the neuter *hit*, our *it*. But it came to be thought improper to use *his* to denote inanimate things as well as animate. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, we see a growing sense of this impropriety — *of it*, *thereof*, *her*, *it*, *it own*, and *the* are used in place of *his* as the possessive of *it*.

Long after its introduction — in 1598, Lounsbury says — many looked askance at *its* because of the supposed grammatical blunder it contains — the -t in *its*, like the -t in *what* and *that* and the -d in Latin *illud*, *quod*, and *id*, being a nominative neuter ending, and the -s a possessive ending.

In converting into good English what was at first rejected as a grammatical monstrosity the power of usage is here strikingly seen.

[4] The three pronouns *he*, *she*, and *it*, distinct in the singular, are alike in the plural. A number of persons may be of different sexes; we may wish to speak of persons and of mere things together. A plural pronoun form, having a common gender, like *they*, *their*, and *them*, is convenient for this purpose.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Nom. Obj. SING.	*Nom. Obj.* PLU.	*Nom. Obj.* SING.	*Nom. Obj.* PLU.	*Nom. Obj.* SING.	*Nom. Obj.* PLU.
myself[1] *or* ourself;[2]	ourselves.	thyself *or* yourself;	yourselves.	himself; herself; itself;	themselves.

The compound personal pronouns have no possessives. They are not regularly used as subjects — only (1) for emphasis and (2) as reflexives,[3] as: —

(1) "I *myself* saw it"; (2) "He found *himself* deserted by his friends."

Ourself and *we* are used by rulers, editors, and others to hide their individuality, and give authority to what they say. This use of the plural for the singular is analogous to its use in address.

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[1] *Self* and *selves* are added to the possessive of the first and second personal pronouns, and to the objective of the third.

[2] While we use the plural *you* and *your* in addressing a single person, we employ the emphatic and reflexive singular *yourself*, not *yourselves*, in such address. So, too, though *our* is plural, editors say *ourself*, not *ourselves*.

[3] The O.E. had no reflexives; the ordinary personal pronouns were used instead. When no obscurity would be caused we may do the same; as, "My uncle stopped a minute to look *about him*"; "They counted not their lives dear *unto them*"; "The young prince took *upon him* the obligations."

In O.E., *self* strengthened the pronoun in any case, but always stood separate from it. When strengthening the pronoun used as subject, the dative of the pronoun was repeated before *self*; as, "He (*him*) *self* did it."

Professor Sweet notices that *him* in "He begged me to defend *him*," for instance, would in Latin be the reflexive *se*. But we could not in English use the corresponding reflexive *himself*, because the logical subject of *to defend* is *me*. We should have to use the misleading *myself*, if we used any reflexive. He therefore calls the Latin reflexives *grammatical*; and the English *logical*.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Pronouns — Differences from Nouns. Classes of. Declension of Personal Pronouns — Simple and Compound.

Questions. — The radical difference between nouns and pronouns? Who in succession may be denoted by *I?* By *you?* By *he* and *she?* Illustrate the indefiniteness and the definiteness at once of pronouns. Definition? What four things do pronouns enable us to do? What are the six greater differences between nouns and pronouns? The five minor differences? Give and define the several classes of pronouns. How are the compound personal and relative pronouns formed? Give the personal pronouns; the interrogative; the relative; and the more common of the adjective pronouns. Why are not *brave* and *good*, etc., in the phrases *the brave*, *the good*, etc., adjective pronouns? What are they? Illustrate the difficulty of distinguishing some interrogatives from relatives. Why is *we*, strictly speaking, not the plural of *I?* How came the plural pronoun to displace the singular in address? The difference between modern and classical languages in the pronoun of address? *Ye* in Chaucer and in the 1611 version of the Bible? *You* now? *Mine, ours*, etc., how used? *Of mine, of his*, etc., explain. Use of the idiom? Functions of *it?* History of *its?* Force of usage seen in what? What three pronouns, diverse in the singular, are alike in the plural? What is gained by this likeness? To what cases of the simple pronouns is the *self* or *selves* added to form the compound? Uses of these compounds? To what use should they not be put? What case do they lack? While the plural *you* and *your* is used in addressing a single person, what compound do we use? In the editorial use of the compound? When, in O.E., *self* strengthened the pronoun used as subject, what case of the pronoun was repeated before *self?*

Exercises. — Decline the personal pronouns — simple and compound. In what English words does grammatical gender survive? Illustrate

pronouns standing for a phrase, a clause, a sentence. Name the only double possessives in English. Name the demonstrative, the indefinite, the reciprocal, and the distributive pronouns. Explain the -s in *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs*. Illustrate the various uses of *it*. Show that a noun or pronoun in the possessive may have a pronoun relating to it. What words and phrases were resorted to to avoid the use of *his* with inanimate things? Illustrate the use of the simple personal pronouns as reflexives.

CHAPTER XI

THE PRONOUN — (*Continued*)

DECLENSION OF O.E. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

SINGULAR

Nom.	ic, 'I,'	ðū, 'thou,'	hē, 'he,'	heð, 'she,'	hit, 'it,'
Gen.	mīn,	ðīn,	his,	hire,	his,
Dat.	mē,	ðē,	him,	hire,	him,
Acc.	mē(mec);	ðē(ðec);	hine;	hī;	hit;

	PLURAL		PLURAL
Nom.	wē,	gē,	hī, hie,
Gen.	ūre,	eōwer,	hira,
Dat.	ūs,	eōw,	him,
Acc.	ūs(ūsic).	eōw(eōwic).	hī, hie.

DECLENSION OF THE O.E. DEMONSTRATIVE *SE*,

'the,' 'that.'

SINGULAR

	MAS.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	se,	seð,	ðæt,
Gen.	ðæs,	ðǣre,	ðæs,
Dat.	ðǣm, ðām,	ðǣre,	ðǣm, ðām,
Acc.	ðone,	ðā,	ðæt,
Instr.	ðȳ,	ðǣre,	ðȳ;

PLURAL

Nom.	ðā,
Gen.	ðǣra, ðāra,
Dat.	ðǣm, ðām,
Acc.	ðā.

A **Comparison** of our personal pronouns with these O.E. forms shows

1. That all our pronoun forms of the first and second persons are those of the O.E. personal pronouns. *I* — capitalized to distinguish it from the prefix *i* of the past participle, Professor Lounsbury says — is *ic* minus *c*; *mine* and *thine* are *mīn* and *ðīn* plus *e*; *my* and *thy* are *mīn* and *ðīn* minus *n* and with *ī* changed to *y*; and *our*, *your*, *ye*, and *you* are *ūre*, *eōwer*, *gē*, and *eōw* but slightly changed.

2. That *he*, *his*, *him*, *her*, and *it*, of the third personal pronouns, are the O.E. personal forms *hē*, *his*, *him*, *hire*, and *hit* but slightly changed. But *she*, *they*, *their*, and *them* are *seō*, *ðā*, *ðǣra* or *ðāra*, and *ðǣm* or *ðām* of the demonstrative *se* — transferred and made personal in Mn.E.

3. That the objective forms of our personal pronouns, except *it*, are the O.E. dative forms. Our *me*, *thee*, *him*, *her*, *us*, and *you* are not the accusative *mec*, *ðec*, *hine*, *hī*, *ūsic*, and *eōwic*, but the dative *mē*, *ðē*, *him*, *hire*, *ūs*, and *eōw*, — four of which had, even in O.E., forced their way into the accusative, crowding *mec*, *ðec*, *ūsic*, and *eōwic* into the second place. And when the plurals of the demonstrative *se* supplanted those of the third personal pronouns, the dative *ðǣm*, and not the accusative *ðā*, gives us our objective *them*.

4. That *you*, the O.E. dative *eōw*, has worked its way into the nominative also, and has ousted *ye*[1] except in poetry and solemn

[1] *Ye* is the exclusive form for the nominative in Chaucer, and in the King James Version of the Bible — which, however, in this respect, as in others, reflects usage older than 1611. Shakespeare uses *ye* and *you* indiscriminately. *You* for *ye* is found as early as the fifteenth century. *You* is now both nominative and objective.

address; and that this same dative plural *you* has displaced the nominative *thou* as well as the accusative *thee*.

5. That, but for the substitution of the second person plural for the singular, the dative singular *thee*[1] would have driven out the nominative *thou*, as its prototype *ðē* had driven out the accusative *ðec*.

6. That the demonstrative *ðæt* is our demonstrative and relative *that;* and the instrumental *ðȳ* is our *the* in adverb clauses of degree, as in "Success is more certain *the* sooner we begin."

DECLENSION OF THE MN.E. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

	SING. AND PLU.	SING. AND PLU.	SING. AND PLU.
Nom.	who,	which,	what,
Pos.	whose,	———,	[whose],
Obj.	whom.	which.	what.

DECLENSION OF THE O.E. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

	MAS. AND FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	hwā, 'who,'	hwæt,
Gen.	hwæs,	hwæs,
Dat.	hwǣm, hwām,	hwǣm, hwām,
Acc.	hwone,	hwæt,
Inst.	———.	hwȳ.

[1] The dative-nominative *thee* was rapidly establishing itself when checked by this substitution. But it appears often when the second person singular is retained. Shakespeare frequently uses it, as in "How *agrees* the devil and *thee* about thy soul?" "Does it not, *think'st thee*, stand it now upon?"

F. B. Gummere, *Phil. Journal*, Vol. IV, shows that euphony does not explain this use of *thee*. In Elizabethan literature, *thee* is common as a nominative; it is found as late as Dryden and Pope. It ousted *thou* from the dialects. In the familiar speech of the Quakers, the dative-nominative *thee* is generally used for *thou*, and is no more ungrammatical with them than is *you* for *ye* or *thou* with other people.

The reasons given for this substitution of *thee* for *thou* are (1) the use of the ethical dative, and (2) the use of the dative with impersonal verbs, as in "*me* thinks," "*me*

Remarks. — 1. The same forms are used in the singular and the plural; and *hwā* and *hwone* — *who* and *whom* — are masculine or feminine.

2. *Which*, compounded of *hwā* + *līc*, or *hwȳ* + *līc*, cannot have a possessive *whose*.

3. While theoretically the interrogative *whose* may, as in O.E., be the possessive of the neuter *what*, it is, in actual use, confined to persons, and is the possessive of the interrogative *who* only.

4. In the interrogatives, as in other words, the O.E. initial **hw** appears in Mn.E. as **wh**, in spite of the fact that in pronunciation **h** precedes **w**.

5. As in personal pronouns so in the interrogative *whom* — and in the relative also — the old dative in **-m** is our objective. But the accusative *what*, like the accusative *it*, is our objective.

6. Our interrogative adverb, *why*, is the instrumental *hwȳ*; and *how* is from the same root.

7. *Which* and *what* are **interrogative adjectives** as well as pronouns; as, "*What manner* of man is this?" "*Which offer* did you accept?"

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The prime distinction of relative pronouns is not that they relate to other words, but that they relate to words in other clauses, bind the clauses together, and at the same time indicate the subordinacy in thought of the clauses in which they stand.

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seems," "if *thee* wel hadde liked." The dative being the only form of the pronoun used with this verb, it came to be regarded as the proper form for subject when the verb became personal.

Me for nominative is universal baby-talk, and is colloquial in idiom, as in "Who is there?" "*Me*."

Only with the second personal pronoun plural, however, did the dative-nominative get a firm hold.

1. The O.E. demonstrative *se*, *seō*, *ðæt*, either alone or along with the indeclinable *ðe*, was used as a relative. The *ðæt*—in its modern form *that*—has been retained in this office, is our oldest relative pronoun, and is indeclinable throughout.

2. Our other relative pronouns—*who*, *which*, and *what*—are the interrogatives changed[1] to relatives. In this transition, *which* preceded *who*. They are declined like the interrogatives, except that *which* has a possessive *whose*.[2] This, however, is not formed from the nominative; but is etymologically the possessive of *what* turned over to *which*.

3. The essential differences in use between *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*, are these: *who*, *which*, and *that* once related alike (1) to words denoting mere animals and things, and (2) to words denoting persons; but *which* gradually drove *who* from the first office, and *who* and *that* drove[3] *which* from the second. *That* still performs both offices, though, unlike the other relatives, it cannot stand in the objective after a preposition, as:—

"The book *that* I asked *for*," not "The book *for that* I asked."

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[1] In the order of growth, simple sentences containing interrogatives naturally precede complex sentences, in which alone relatives are found.

The metamorphosis is thus illustrated by Professor Whitney: "Who did it?" "We saw the man" is equal to "We saw the man [of whom the inquiry was made] who did it," is equal to "We saw the man who did it." "Which barked?" "I see the dog" is equal to "I see the dog which barked."

[2] It is not true that this *whose* is rarely employed except in poetry; it is in general use in prose. Those who regard good usage as a sufficient warrant may employ it freely.

[3] This double displacement, beginning in the seventeenth century, is now complete.

What[1] is used only of mere things, and then only when the antecedent is suppressed.

The relative *that* is almost always restrictive;[2] that is, it introduces a clause which, while adding to the meaning of the antecedent, narrows the application of it. *Who* and *which* are prevailingly unrestrictive, but, like *that*, are restrictive[3] also.

4. Since *who*, *which*, and *that* are all eligible to restrictive clauses, it is often, when the antecedent does not name both persons and things, left to **euphony** to decide what relative to use. It is thought that after *same*, *very*, *all*, the interrogative *who*, the indefinite *it*, and adjectives in the superlative, *that* is preferable to *who* or *which*.

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[1] Doing duty for the antecedent also, this relative, like *who* and the old-fashioned *whoso*, in "*Who* chooseth me must give and hazard all he hath," and "*Whoso* mocketh the poor reproacheth his Maker," Professor Sweet calls a **condensed relative**. We may indeed say, "*What* he needs *that* he should have."

[2] Here is a restrictive clause: "Ice *that is formed in March* is porous." These are unrestrictive: "Ice, *which is water frozen*, forms at 32° Fahrenheit"; "Columbus, *who discovered America in 1492*, died at Valladolid in 1506." The restrictive clause, closely connected with the rest of the sentence, is not set off by the comma; the unrestrictive clause, loosely connected, is. The unrestrictive relative is equal to *and he*, *and she*, *and it*, or *and they*, and "has a merely continuative force."

[3] While, as Bain remarks, it might "be a clear gain" to confine *who* and *which* to unrestrictive clauses, usage does not so confine them.

The wide use of *who* and *which* in restrictive clauses is not accounted for by saying that they occur after *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*, and hence are used to avoid repetitions of sounds. This may frequently be the reason for employing *who* and *which* in restrictive clauses, but usage authorizes us to affirm (1) that *who* and *which* stand in such clauses oftener without, than with, *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* preceding them; and (2) that they stand thus oftener than *that* itself does. *Which* stands thus oftener than *who* does.

5. The **relative** is often **omitted** when, if expressed, it would be in the objective,[1] as: —

"The men we have advised and the methods we have pursued"; "We see it in the food he eats, the exercise he takes, the air he breathes."

6. *Which* points back to (1) **infinitive and other phrases,** and (2) to **clauses,** as: —

"They intend *to embark at once*, *which* is the proper thing to do"; "He proposed *embarking at once*, to *which* safety urged"; "*The leaders are honest*, *which* is a great deal."

7. *Which* and *what* **point forward** to **clauses,** as: —

"And, *which* became him well, *he confessed his fault*"; "*What* is more to the point, *he told the truth.*"

8. *Which* and *what,* while connecting clauses, may be **used as adjectives,** as: —

"She promised to go home; for *which place*[2] she soon set out"; "She gathered together *what stuff* she had."

9. For *which,* with *at, from, to, by, in, on,* and *upon,* we may substitute *when, where, whence, whither, whereby, wherein, whereon,* and *whereupon.*

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[1] Its omission in the nominative was once common, as in "I have a mind presages me such thrift."

[2] When so used, the noun that *which* modifies is repeated, in form or in substance — as above — from the leading clause. Used as an adjective or as a pronoun, *which* was preceded by *the*; as, "He spied the roll, *the which* he hastily caught up"; "Let gentleness my strong enforcement be, in *the which hope* I blush."

10. *As*[1] and *but*[2] are by some called relatives in such sentences as these: —

"His conduct is not such *as* I admire"; "There is no one *but* knows it."

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — The O.E. Personal Pronouns and the Demonstrative. Six-fold Comparison of the O.E. with the Mn.E. Declension of the O.E. and Mn.E. Interrogatives, and Remarks thereon. Relative Pronouns — Points thereon.

Questions. — Show that all of our Mn.E. personal pronoun forms are O.E. personal or demonstrative forms slightly changed. Show that all our objective personal forms, except *it*, are O.E. dative forms. When was this substitution of case-forms begun? What in O.E. is our *you?* What did it displace? What in Mn.E. has *you* displaced? But for the substitution of the plural pronoun for the singular in address, what would *thee* have displaced? The O.E. demonstrative *ðæt* is what in Mn.E.? The O.E. instrumental *ðȳ* is what in Mn.E.? In Chaucer, and in the English Bible of 1611, *ye* is used how? In Shakespeare how? *You* is now what? How does Shakespeare frequently use *thee?* What has Professor Gummere shown respecting *thee?* Reasons for the substitution of *thee* for *thou?* Only with what personal pronoun did the dative-nominative get a footing? Of what genders are the interrogative *who* and *whom?* The composition of *which?* Can *whose* be the possessive of *which?* Our

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[1] Expanding the illustrative sentence into "His conduct is not such *as that is which* I admire," *as* may be regarded as a conjunctive adverb.

[2] *But* used after a negative, as here, may be expanded thus: "There is no one *but* (=*except*) him who knows it," showing *but* to be a preposition.

But what for *but* alone or *but that* should not be used to connect an adverb clause; as, "He is not so bad *but* or *but that* (not *but what*) he might be worse."

interrogative *whose* is, in use, the possessive of what? The O.E. initial *hw* is spelled how in Mn.E.? Is the modern spelling true to the pronunciation? Our objective *whom* is what case-form in O.E.? Our objective *what* and *it* are what O.E. case-forms? Our interrogative *why* and *how* what? *Which* and *what* are used how? The prime distinctions of relative pronouns? Our relative *that* is what in O.E.? Is it declinable in Mn.E.? Its rank as to age? Our relatives *who*, *which*, and *what* were originally what? Explain their transition into relatives. Our relative *whose* from what? How may it be used now? What were, and what now are, the differences in use between the relatives *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*? What is the difference between a restrictive and an unrestrictive clause? What relative is almost always restrictive? What other relatives may be? When, in restrictive clauses, is *that* preferable to *who* and *which*? What governs in the choice? When is the relative often omitted? *Which* may point back to what? May point forward to what? *Which* and *what*, while connecting clauses, are sometimes what part of speech? What must be repeated — in form or in substance — when *which* is so used? For what words is the use of *but what* reprehensible?

Exercises. — Decline the O.E. personal pronouns, and the demonstrative *se*. Show from what in O.E. each of our personal pronouns is derived. What does Professor Sweet call *what*? When may *what* have an antecedent expressed? Illustrate the position of such antecedent. Illustrate the uses of the words that may take the place of *which* with certain prepositions.

CHAPTER XII

THE PRONOUN — (*Continued*)

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

	SING. AND PLU.	SING. AND PLU.
Nom.	whoever,[1]	whosoever,[1]
Pos.	whosever,	whosesoever,
Obj.	whomever.	whomsoever.

Whichever and *whichsoever, whatever* and *whatsoever* have no possessive, and are alike in nominative and objective.

WRONG CASE-FORMS

In Elizabethan and later literature there is great confusion in the case-forms of pronouns. These ungrammatical constructions may occur, it is thought, from eight causes: —

1. **Attraction.** — The pronoun was often attracted into the case of the adjacent relative, expressed or understood, as: —

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[1] Great care is needed in handling the forms of these pronouns. These sentences by well-known authors do not contain the right forms: "Poets may be permitted an execration or two against *whomsoever* changes their words as well as against *whomsoever* moves their bones"; "I shall want you to meet *whosoever* you like, and to be friendly with *whomever* pleases you"; "The people elect *whosoever* they wish to be president."

"I have come to be known as *her whom* your uncle trusted"; "When *him* we serve's away"; "I do not love the lord as *he that*'s second to thyself."

2. **Euphony.** — It is difficult to pronounce **m** after **d** or **t**; hence men avoid it by saying

"All debts are closed between you *and I*"; "No child *but I*."

3. **Analogy.** — The influence of the stock-phrases, *you and I, he and I,* so frequent in the nominative, keeps *I* in *between you and I,*[1] especially since the *you* is not changed in becoming objective.

A pronoun in the objective, properly used after *as* in such sentences, as: —

"I obey my father as *him* that has a right to obedience,"

may lead to the misuse of the objective in such sentences as

"You are not so good as *me*."

4. **Separation.** — The word that should determine the case of the pronoun fails to do it because of its distance from the pronoun, as: —

"I shall think the better of *myself and thee* during my life; *I* for a valiant lion and *thou* for a true prince."

5. **Vacillation.** — The writer begins with the pronoun in the objective, and afterward decides to end with a finite verb instead of an infinitive, as: —

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[1] The expression "Between you and I," which Dr. E. A. Abbott says was a regular Elizabethan idiom, Professor Sweet thinks is due to the grammatical reaction against what was regarded as the vulgarism of *me* in place of *I*.

"One *whom* all the world knew *was so wronged*" (instead of *to be* so wronged); "*Whom* do men *say that I am?*" (instead of *call me*).

6. **Confusion.** — The writer seems to be in doubt whether certain words as *but, than,* etc. ought to be regarded as prepositions or as conjunctions, as: —

"There is no one but *he* whose being I do fear"; "He seems mightier than *them.*"

7. **Anacoluthon.** — The construction changes, and thus throws the pronoun used out of syntax, as: —

"*She*, Claudio, that you wronged, look you *restore*"; "And *he* my husband best of all affects."

8. **Position.**[1] — The subject usually standing before the verb and the objective after it, the writer is unconsciously influenced to such locutions as these: —

"*Who* do you think I saw standing on deck?" "It is *me*";[2] "*He* that men call a poet they listen to"; "I'll tell you *who* time ambles withal, *who* time trots withal, *who*," etc.

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[1] Jespersen, from whom much of the above is condensed, thinks that position is responsible for the change of the O.E. dative absolute to the Mn.E. nominative absolute, illustrated thus: "*Him destroyed*, all this will follow" = "*He destroyed*, all," etc.

[2] Professor Sweet thinks that *me* is used in "It is *me*" because of its analogy with *he*, *she*, and *we* in the corresponding assertions, "It is *he*," "It is *she*," "It is *we*."

Along with Ellis, Alford, and others, Sweet defends "It is *me*" — claiming for it, however, that it is colloquial only. One may easily satisfy himself that it is almost unknown in literature — especially American. The grammarian may concede that it is used in colloquial speech — especially in England. So much authority the locution has; no more, as yet, we think.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

Adjective pronouns are words that at one time modify nouns; at another, take the place of nouns.

Adjective pronouns are quite irregular — differing from each other in respect to **Number**, **Case**, and the use of the **Articles** *a* and *the*.

1. **Number.** — (1) The adjective pronouns *another*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, etc. are used only in the singular; (2) *both*, *few*, and *several* are used only in the plural; (3) *all*, *any*, *some*, *such*, etc. are used in both numbers; (4) *one* and *other* have the regular plural ending **-s**; (5) *this* and *that*, the irregular vowel change plus **e**, seen in *these*[1] and *those*[1]; and (6) *enough*, *none*, *some*, *such*, and most of the others have the plural like the singular.

2. **Case.** — (1) *None*,[2] *some*, *this*, *that*, and most of the remainder have no possessive case; and (2) *another*, *former*, *latter*, *one*, and *other* have a possessive, and form it with an **apostrophe** before the **-s**.

3. **The Articles.** — (1) *Any*, *enough*, *none*, *this*, *that*,[3] etc. take neither *a* nor *the*; (2) *all*, *one*,[3] *same*, etc., take only *the*; *few*

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[1] "*These* and *those* are doublets — varying forms of the plural of *this*." — *Skeat*.

[2] *None* = *ne* + *ān*, 'not one,' is no longer used with a noun; like *mine*, *ours*, etc., it is absolute, except in *none other*. *No* takes its place when the noun is expressed.

[3] A candidate, *thon*, a contracted form of *that one*, has been proposed in order to meet our lack of a personal pronoun with a common gender. We now awkwardly use two pronouns in such a sentence as this: "If you see John or Jane, tell *him* or *her* that I am well"; or we inaccurately use only *him* or *them*. With this word we could say: "If you see John or Jane, tell *thon* (*that one*) that I am well"; "Each boy and girl must learn *thon's* lesson." Usage has not yet adopted the would-be pronoun, we hardly need say.

and *little* take *a*,[1] but in taking it change from a negative meaning to a positive; (4) *many* takes *a*[2] after it; (5) *all* takes *the* after it only; and (6) *whole* takes *the* before it only.

This points (1) **back**, and (2) **forward**, to an infinitive or other phrase and to a clause, as: —

"*To die for one's country — this* is a duty"; "*Living for one's country — this* is as noble as dying for it"; "*The papers had been destroyed*, but *this* could not be proved"; "*This* is one's privilege: *to serve others*"; "Every man's duty includes *this: care for his body*"; "*This* is one of the commandments: '*Honor thy father and thy mother.*'"

That points **back** to an infinitive or other phrase and to a clause, as: —

"*To love one's enemies, that* is a hard thing to do"; "The Mohammedan *made war upon the infidel; that* the Koran bade him do"; "*A stitch in time saves nine; that* is a proverb of thrift."

When *this* and *that*, *the one* and *the other*, refer to things already mentioned, *this* refers to the last mentioned, and *that* to the first mentioned; *the one* refers to the first mentioned, and *the other* to the last mentioned. The plurals have the same reference. To illustrate: —

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[1] "To our great joy, *a few* of the crew were saved and *a little* of the cargo." *Few*, like *many*, is used of number; *little*, like *much*, of quantity.

[2] "*Many man* in Anglo-Saxon was used like German *mancher mann*, Latin *multus vir*, and the like, until the thirteenth century; when the article was inserted to emphasize the distribution before indicated by the singular number." — *Prof. F. A. March.*

"The moon and the sun shine; *this* by its own light, *that* by reflected light"; "The moon and the sun shine; *the one*, or *the former*, by reflected light, *the other*, or *the latter*, by its own light."

The indefinite adjective pronoun *one* has supplanted the O.E. *man*, and is now in general use. With the meaning of the French *on* (Lat. *homo*, 'man'), and of *I*, *we*, *you*, *they*, *some people* in English, *one* is a very convenient, all-round word.

Many of the words set down as adjective pronouns are at times used as adverbs — *all*, *enough*, *little*, and *much*, and their comparatives and superlatives *less* and *least*, *more* and *most*, *none*, *some*, etc., as: —

All over, strong *enough*, *little* used, *less* worthy, *least* employed, *much* in vogue, *more* enraged, *most* happy, *none* too soon, *some*[1] twenty years ago, etc.

Usage is in favor of *any one else's*, *no one else's*, *somebody else's*, *nobody else's*, instead of *any one's else*, *no one's else*, etc., as: —

"He should have to go and fight in *some one else's* quarrel."

There is almost no authority for placing -'s upon *one* or *body*. The reason for attaching it to *else* was given, p. 101, foot-note.

Other Proscribed Pronomial Locutions are given below.[2]

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[1] *Some* = 'nearly,' 'about,' has been proscribed, but even in O.E. and all the way down, *some* with numerals is common, as in "Young published his *Travels in France some eighteen* months after the *Reflections*."

[2] In the nine following paragraphs we give alternative locutions — only the second of which in each paragraph is allowed by many grammarians and critics; the first they

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Declension of the Compound Relative Pronouns. The Eight possible Causes of wrong Case-Forms. Adjective Pronouns — Irregularity in Number, Case, and the Use of the Articles. Proscribed Pronominal Locutions.

Questions. — What, added to simple relative pronouns, makes them compound? What ones are alike in nominative and objective and in

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utterly condemn. We are able, on the warrant of usage, to say that both readings in each paragraph are correct.

1. We may use *each other* with more than two; we may use *one another* instead. We may say, "All departments of thought illuminate *each other*," or "illuminate *one another*."

2. We may use *one another* with only two; we may use *each other* instead. We may say, "History and biography much resemble *one another* in the pages of Carlyle," or "much resemble *each other*."

3. We may use *all*, *both*, and *whole* with a preposition and a noun or pronoun following; we may use these words as adjectives qualifying the noun or pronoun. We may say, "The meaning of *all of them*," "*Both of them* speak," "The *whole* of Daffydowndilly's *life*," or "The meaning of *them all*," "*They both* speak," "Daffydowndilly's *whole life*."

4. We may use the pronouns *either* and *neither*, as the conjunctions *either* and *neither*, with more than two; we may use *any one* and *none* instead. We may say, "*Either* of his *four Pastorals*," "*Neither* of the *three Competitors*," or "*Any one* of his *four Pastorals*," "*None* or *no one* of the *three Competitors*."

5. We may use *he* or some other pronoun after the indefinite *one*; we may repeat the *one* instead. We may say, "*One* must feel intellectually secure before *he* can venture to dress shabbily," or "before *one* can venture," etc.

6. We may use *no* with the indefinite *one*; we may use *not* instead. We may say, "*No one* of these instructions did they change," or "*Not one* of these," etc.

7. We may use *such* before an adjective and its noun; we may use *so* instead. We may say, "*Such widely different* ways," "*Such an abject* lot," or "Ways *so widely different*," "*So abject* a lot."

8. We may use *either* in the sense of *each*; we may use *each* instead. We may say, "The chief officers of *either army*," or "of *each army*."

9. We may use *none* in the plural; we may use *none* in the singular. We may say, "My right there *are none* to dispute," or "there *is none* to dispute."

having no possessive? What are the liabilities to mistake in the use of these pronouns? Account for the mistakes in the use of case-forms of simple relatives. How does Jespersen account for the change of the O.E. dative to the Mn.E. nominative in absolute constructions? How does Professor Sweet account for the colloquial use of *me* in "It is *me*"? What authority can be given for that locution? What are adjective pronouns? Give some that are used only in the singular; some used only in the plural; some, in both numbers; some, with the regular plural ending -s; some with the stem vowel changed in the plural; and some with the plural like the singular. Give some without possessive case; and some with the possessive in -'s. Give some that take neither *a* nor *the;* some that take only *the;* some that take *a* with change from negative to positive; one that takes *a* after it only; one that takes *the* after it only; one that takes *the* before it only. *These* and *those* are what? *None* compounded of what and used how? For what is the candidate *thon* proposed? Why proposed? *This* points back and forward to what? *That*, back to what? The distinction in reference between *this* and *that*, and between *the one* and *the other*. *One* has supplanted what O.E. word? This indefinite adjective pronoun is used in place of what French word? What English words? What adjective pronouns are sometimes adverbs? Which proper — "any *one's* else" or "any one *else's*"? Refer to chapter IX, and give the reason for the usage in respect to the place of this possessive sign. How may *some* be used? Defend the nine other proscribed pronominal locutions.

Exercises. — Decline the compound relative pronouns. Illustrate the causes influencing the use of the wrong case-forms. Illustrate the use of *this*, *that*, of *this* and *that*, and of *the one* and *the other*. Illustrate the use of both forms in each of the nine proscribed pronominal locutions. What is the authority for both, and to what respect is this authority entitled?

CHAPTER XIII

THE ADJECTIVE

Origin. — None of the original words were exclusively nouns or adjectives or verbs, but all of these indifferently. Laying hold of certain qualities or actions of concrete things, they became nouns or adjectives or verbs to suit the speaker's needs.

The capacity of some words for these various duties exists yet, as: —

"My *love*"; "*Love* potion"; "I *love*."

Nouns still pass[1] easily into adjectives, and adjectives into nouns, as: —

"*Cotton* cloth," "*Iron* spoons"; "The *news* is warlike"; "Respect your *betters*"; "His *superior* summoned him"; "The *true*," "The *false*"; "The *righteous*," "The *wicked*."

A Distinction between Adjectives and Nouns. — That either part of speech may become the other implies a distinction between them. Nouns, as such, name; adjectives, as such,

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[1] Each part of speech, in passing into the other, abandons its old modifications, and does not assume all that belong to the part it becomes. The noun leaves behind it its case and its plural sign, and does not take comparison; the adjective loses its comparison, and does not adopt gender or necessarily the plural sign.

As seen above, *the* or some pronoun in the possessive is used to convert an adjective into an abstract noun or into a concrete — "*The true*," "*The righteous*," "*His superior*."

do not. Adjectives denote some quality or quantity, but denote it as belonging to, or existing in, a thing. If the quality be considered apart from the thing, the word that denotes it names it, and is an abstract noun — *whiteness* names what *white* denotes.

It follows, then, that as an adjective denotes some property of a thing, it must be used with a word expressing the thing — a noun or a pronoun.

Functions. — Some adjectives denote the qualities of things; some, the number of things; some, the quantity of things; and some, the relations existing between things. These various offices are here illustrated: —

"*Good* men"; "*Six* marbles"; "*Much* land"; "*This* book."

The quality, or property, denoted by an adjective may be **assumed** as belonging to the thing or it may be **affirmed** as belonging to it. Adjectives assumed are closely attached to their nouns, and immediately precede or follow[1] them; adjectives asserted are in the predicate.

In denoting quality, number, quantity, or relation, assumed[2] adjectives lessen the things which their nouns

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[1] Professor Earle's remark, "The French structure is still available when there is a touch of humor or pathos," tells but a fraction of the truth. **Balance**, **euphony**, **rhythm**, and **emphasis**, as well as **humor** or **pathos**, may draw the adjective after its noun.

[2] An adjective modifying a proper noun or denoting a necessary quality does not narrow the scope — *Truthful George Washington* and *red blood* equal in scope *George Washington* and *blood*.

The asserted adjective is only unfolding what is implied in the noun, and therefore does not restrict the application of the noun.

name — *good men*, *six marbles*, and *this book* do not apply to as many men, marbles, and books as *men*, *marbles*, and *book* do, for these apply to all; and of much land there is less than there is of land, *i.e.* all land. In the language of logic, the adjective increases the intension of the noun, but decreases the extension.

Adjectives modify [1] nouns by limiting their application or scope.

Classification. — To prescribe the number or the quantity of things or to point out things by noting some quality of them or some relation which they bear, is to put bounds about the things — to **define** them.

Adjectives that limit by denoting qualities are **Descriptive Adjectives**; those that limit by pointing out, or numbering, things,[2] or by denoting quantity, are **Definitive**[3] **Adjectives.**

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[1] Some adjectives modify not the simple noun but the noun already modified by adjectives. In "Every intelligent American citizen should vote," *intelligent* modifies *citizen* limited by *American*, and *every* modifies *citizen* limited by both *American* and *intelligent*. Adjectives are not then always of the same rank. When a distinction exists, it should be noted, for it determines the order of the adjectives and their punctuation. In a series of unequal rank, those most closely modifying the noun stand nearest to it, before or after, and no comma separates them.

Assumed adjectives have the force of clauses. (1) A selection of such as predispose the reader to the assertion following; (2) a rigid limitation of the number chosen; and (3) a judicious placing of these — if possible, the longest nearest the noun — tell powerfully upon the thought and its expression.

[2] The definitive adjectives *one*, *two*, *three*, etc., and *first*, *second*, *third*, etc., are called **Numeral Adjectives**. *One*, *two*, *three*, etc., are **Cardinal** numerals; *first*, *second*, *third*, etc., are **Ordinal** numerals.

These numeral adjectives are often used as pronouns. When so used, we should call them *adjective pronouns* if their usual adjective function were not so much more pronounced than their pronominal.

[3] In treating of adjective pronouns, we spoke of many definitive adjectives. We call

Definitions

An Adjective is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun.

A Descriptive Adjective is one that modifies by denoting quality.

A Definitive Adjective is one that modifies by pointing out or numbering, or by denoting quantity.

Inflection. — In O.E., the adjective is inflected — its inflections changing with the change of the gender, the case, and the number of the noun it modifies.

An O.E. noun has only one set of inflections, the vowel or the consonant; an O.E. adjective has the three sets of the three genders in each declension. If not preceded by the definite article, or by a demonstrative, or a possessive, pronoun, the adjective takes the endings[1] of a pronoun;

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them *adjective pronouns*, rather than *pronominal adjectives*, because their pronominal function seems so much more pronounced than their adjectival.

Whatever the etymology or the history of the words we call *adjective pronouns*,— variously called by others, *adjective pronouns*, *indefinite pronouns*, and *pronominal adjectives*, — we place no words in this class that are not used as adjectives and as pronouns. We therefore exclude from the list words that some include, such as, *a*, *alone*, *else*, *every*, *no*, *only*, *sundry*, *the*, etc.

We exclude from this class the interrogative and the relatives *which* and *what*, and the numerals *one*, *two*, *first*, *second*, etc., because, though complying with the condition above, the dominating interrogative and relative function of the two pronouns, and the adjectival function of the numerals, compel another classification of them. "Good reasons must, of force, give place to better."

Wherever the words classed as adjective pronouns are used as adjectives, they should be called adjectives.

[1] The endings of these adjectives differ in these respects from those of the O.E. nouns inflected on p. 93: that of the masculine accusative singular is **-ne**; that of the feminine genitive and dative singular is **-re**; that of the masculine and neuter dative singular is **-um**; that of the nominative and accusative plural throughout is **-e**; and that of the genitive plural throughout is **-ra**. These endings are nearly like those of the pronoun, p. 117, and justify the name *pronominal* given to adjectives when having these declensional endings.

if thus preceded, it takes the endings of the consonant[1] declension of nouns.

These two diverse sets of declensional endings — the one called *indefinite* or *pronominal*, and the other *definite*[2] or *nominal* — were so confusing that, without either supplanting the other, both gave way.

The only modification adjectives retain is **comparison** in its three degrees — **Positive, Comparative,** and **Superlative.**

Comparison. — 1. In *-er* and *-est*. In the Teutonic member of our family, the comparative of adjectives was usually formed by adding **-is** or **-ōs** to the positive; the superlative, by adding **-ta** to the comparative.

In O.E., the **s** of the comparative **-is** or **-ōs** underwent **rhotacism,** became **r**; the **s** of the superlative **-ista** or **-ōsta** did not. When now the **i** or the **o** of the comparative **-is** or **-ōs** and of the superlative **-ista** or **-ōsta** leveled to obscure **e**, and the **a** of the superlative, changed to **e**, disappeared, the comparative and superlative endings became **-er** and **-est** — as they are to-day.

Adjectives Irregular in Comparison. — There are adjectives (1) whose different degrees are from different stems; some (2) whose positive or comparative is wanting; and some (3) whose endings of comparison are peculiar. These inheritances of ours from O.E. are here grouped: —

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[1] Except that the genitive plural ending is usually **-ra** instead of **-ena**.

[2] The final **-e** in the definite form, and in the plural, of adjectives is a common survival in Chaucer. The **-en** in our *olden* is possibly a survival.

POS.	COMP.	SUPER.	POS.	COMP.	SUPER.
(Aft),[1]	after,	aftmost *or* aftermost.	Little,[2]	less[3] *or* lesser,	least.
Bad, Evil, Ill,	worse,[3]	worst.	Many *or* Much,	more,	most.
Far,	farther,[4]	farthest *or* farthermost.	Near,	nearer,[3]	nearest *or* next.
Fore,	former,	foremost *or* first.	Old,	older *or* elder,	oldest *or* eldest.
(Forth),	further,[4]	furthest *or* furthermost.	(Out),	outer *or* utter,	outmost *or* outermost; utmost *or* uttermost.
Good,	better,	best.			
Hind,	hinder,	hindmost[5] *or* hindermost.	Under,	——,	undermost.
(In),	inner,	inmost *or* innermost.	(Up),	upper,	upmost *or* uppermost.
			Top,	——,	topmost.
Late,	later *or* latter,	latest *or* last.			

[1] The words in curves are adverbs — the adjectives having no positive form.

[2] For the comparative and the superlative of *little*, in the sense of small in size, *smaller* and *smallest* are substituted; as, *little* boy, *smaller* boy, *smallest* boy.

[3] It is thought that *worse* and *less* are comparatives of O.E *wyrs* and *lǣs*. The -s in *worse* and *less* did not become r; that these adjectives are comparatives was therefore overlooked. *Worser* and *lesser* — the one occasionally used, and the other more frequently — are consequently double comparatives. *Nearer* is also — *near* being a comparative of O.E. *neāh*.

[4] In *further* and *farther* — between which, Lounsbury says, "No distinction in good usage exists as yet," — an O.E. comparative suffix -ther is seen. "*Further* and *farther* are in general not differentiated . . . but *further* is preferred . . . when . . . quantity or degree is implied." — *International Dictionary*.

[5] In *hindmost*, *foremost*, *utmost*, etc., an O.E. superlative suffix -m or -ma is found. This -m strengthened itself with the ordinary superlative ending -est — the vowel changing to o through force of the adverb *most*. These adjectives are consequently double superlatives.

Comparison. — 2. **By the Use of Adverbs.** Norman-French influence brought in a second method of comparison — that by the use of adverbs.[1] Those used in English are *more* and *most*,[2] *less* and *least*, as: —

"*More* or *less* exemplary"; "*Most* or *least* useful or awkward."

This method was adopted for the sake of euphony, and its use rests largely upon individual taste. Compounded and polysyllabic adjectives, and adjectives ending in letters that do not blend musically with **-er** and **-est**, are those with which it is generally employed.

-Er and **-est** added to adjectives always denote **increase**; the **second method**, restricted to the use of the adverbs *less* and *least*, is the one method available to denote **decrease**.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Adjectives — Origin, Functions, Classification, Inflection, Comparison in Two Ways.

Questions. — The original words used how at first? The capacity of some words for various duties now? Show how adjectives pass into nouns, and nouns into adjectives, even now. In the transition, what does each part of speech abandon? What may *the* do to an adjective?

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[1] Lounsbury says that in *Ancren Riwle*, about 1220, one of the first recorded instances of this comparison is found.

[2] But note that these adverbs are compared in the old way. The O.E. superlative **-st** is in *most* and *least*. The O.E. comparative **-s**, unchanged to **r**, is the final letter of *less*; changed to **r**, it is the **r** in *more*. In this method of comparison, then, not the adjective, but the adverb modifying it, takes the O.E. endings **-er** and **-est**, with the vowel omitted.

A distinction between nouns and adjectives? The several functions of adjectives? The difference between an adjective assumed and an adjective affirmed? Adjectives modify nouns how? What adjectives do not limit the scope of the noun? What besides humor or pathos may draw the assumed adjective after its noun? Assumed adjectives have the force of what? What besides the simple noun may adjectives modify? and what changes in punctuation result? Classify adjectives, and define them and their classes. Some definitives are called what? What adjectives only are called by us *adjective pronouns?* What inflections have O.E. adjectives? What caused the dropping of these in M.E.? What is meant by *rhotacism?* In what ways is the comparison of some adjectives irregular? Show how *worser*, *lesser*, and *nearer* are double comparatives. Explain the ending *most* in *hindmost*, etc. The second method of comparison, what? From whom borrowed? When is the first used? and when the second? Show how the first is used even in the second. **-Er** and **-est** added to adjectives denote what? What adverbs used to denote decrease of quality?

Exercises. — Trace the development of **-er** and **-est**. Give the comparison of irregular adjectives. Illustrate the two methods of comparison, and tell when the second is used. What can you say of **-ther** and of **-m** or **-ma**?

CHAPTER XIV

THE ADJECTIVE — (*Completed*)

THE form of the adjective expressing simple quality or quantity is in the **Positive**[1] **Degree**; the form expressing them in a greater measure or in a less is in the **Comparative**[2] **Degree**; and the form expressing them in the greatest or in the least is in the **Superlative**[2] **Degree.**

DEFINITIONS

Comparison is a modification of the adjective (and the adverb) to express the relative degree of the quality or quantity in the things compared.

The Positive Degree expresses simple quality or quantity.

The Comparative Degree expresses a greater or a less measure of the quality or quantity.

The Superlative Degree expresses the greatest or the least measure of the quality or quantity.

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[1] Even the positive implies comparison. "This orange is sweet" means that it has more than the sweetness of ordinary oranges.

[2] The comparative and the superlative express the measure relatively. "This orange is sweeter than that" and "This orange is the sweetest of all" do not mean that this one is very sweet, but that it is sweeter than the other, than the others.

The measure may be increased or decreased by other adverbs than *more* and *most*,

RULE. — **Adjectives and adverbs are compared by adding *-er* to the positive to form the comparative, and *-est* to the positive to form the superlative; or by prefixing to the positive *more* and *most* or *less* and *least*.**

RULES FOR SPELLING. — In the comparative and the superlative of adjectives,[1] the only principles regulating our otherwise lawless orthography are seen.

RULE I. — **Final *e* is dropped[2] before a suffix beginning with a vowel**; as, *large, larger.*

RULE II. — **Y after a consonant becomes *i*[3] before a suffix not beginning with *i*;** as, *happy, happier.*

RULE III. — **In monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, a final consonant after a single vowel doubles[4] before a suffix beginning with a vowel**; as, *red, redder.*

Which Method is Gaining. — Comparison by the use of adverbs has made such inroads upon the older method that some have predicted the extinction of the latter. But

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less and *least.* We may say, "*very, rather, somewhat* sweet"; "*far, still, much* sweeter," "*by far* or *much* the sweetest."

[1] These principles determine the spelling of other parts of speech — the **Noun** and the **Verb**, for example — as (1) *horse, horses; live, living;* (2) *beauty, beauties; dry, dried;* and (3) *hat, hatter; infer, inferred.* But they are oftenest illustrated in the comparison of adjectives, and therefore are formulated here.

[2] The **e** is retained (1) after **c** and **g** when the suffix begins with **a** or **o**; as *peaceable, changeable, courageous;* (2) after **o**, as *hoeing, shoeing;* and (3) when needed to preserve the identity of the word, as *singeing, dyeing.*

The retention of **e** in (1) prevents the change of **c** and **g** to their guttural sounds.

[3] The **y** is retained in *babyhood*, and it does not change before -'**s** or in the plural of proper nouns, as *lady's*, the *Marys*, the *Henrys.*

[4] **K** and **x** are never doubled, as in *look, looking; ox, oxen;* and the **s** in *gas* is not doubled in *gases.*

familiarity with the best English of to-day convinces one that usage is returning[1] to the older method.

Some Adjectives not Compared. — Most definitive adjectives, and many descriptive, are not compared — their meaning not admitting increase or decrease. Yet some[2] of these, taken in less than their full signification, in the meaning of nearer or nearest to the position, are compared.

Double Comparatives and Superlatives. — After the adoption of the second method of comparison, it became the fashion to use it to strengthen[3] the first. Double comparatives seem to have been more in vogue than double superlatives. It hardly need be said that we do not use these double forms now.

Faulty Comparison. — Care should be taken that the things compared are not (1) **included**[4] in classes to which

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[1] In Hawthorne, Whitney, M. Arnold, Henry Taylor, Lowell, Thackeray, Martineau, Browning, Hutton, Ruskin, and a host of others, such forms as *cheerfulest*, *beautifulest*, *correctest*, *succincter*, *pitifulest*, *profitablest*, *distincter*, *cunninger*, and *nakedest* are not uncommon.

[2] In our most reputable authors such words as *straightest*, *chiefest*, *directer*, *supremest*, *most exact*, *extremest*, *divinest*, *more* and *as* and *so universal*, and *perfectest* are found.

[3] Lounsbury says that these double forms date from the fourteenth century, and are most prevalent in the second half of the sixteenth and the first half of the seventeenth.

In *King Lear*, Shakespeare uses double comparatives — *more corrupter*, *more harder*, *more heavier*, etc. — a dozen times, and such double superlatives as *most best*, *most dearest*, and *most poorest*.

Ben Jonson calls these double forms "a certain kind of English Atticism, or eloquent phrase of speech."

[4] These sentences wrongly include: "Solomon was the wisest, or the least wise, of (1) any of, or (2) all of, his predecessors or contemporaries or successors or all other

they do not belong, or (2) **excluded**[1] from those to which they do. **Of** denotes **inclusion**; **than, exclusion.**

Comparative or Superlative with Two. — While there is respectable authority for the use of the superlative with two, good usage overwhelmingly favors the comparative instead, as: —

"Dora is the *more thoughtful* of the two"; "Of his parents, the mother was *the younger*."

First Three, or Three First; Next Two, or Two Next. — There is respectable authority for *three first, two next,* etc., but usage overwhelmingly favors *first three, next two,* etc., instead.

Proscribed Adjective Locutions. — Some critics, regardless of usage, condemn (1) *such*[2] before an adjective and its noun, and (2) *a* before a noun in the singular and *one or two*[3] after it.

The Articles. — Two adjectives — *an,* or *a,* and *the* — are so common and have such varied and unique functions that they have secured a distinct name — **Articles.** *An* — from O.E. *ān,* 'one' — shortened to *a* before a consonant sound,

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kings"; "The pulpit in the coming century is to meet the hardest task it has encountered."

[1] These wrongly exclude: "Solomon was wiser or less wise than (1) any ancient king, than (2) any of the ancient kings."

[2] Expressions like these: "*such a beautiful soul,*" "*such undying hatred*" are as common in the best of literature as "*so beautiful a soul,*" "*hatred so undying*" — alternative locutions to which these critics would restrict us.

[3] Phrases like "*a brief word or two,*" "*an example or two*" are more frequent than "*one or two brief words,*" "*one or two examples,*" — alternative locutions to which these critics would restrict us.

is called the **indefinite article**; and *the* — from O.E. *þe*, a collateral form of the demonstrative *se*, — is called the **definite article.**

Points of Agreement between *A*[1] and *The*.[1] — 1. Either of these may modify a noun in the singular: —

"*A man, a horse, an apple, an heir, a unicorn*"; "*The man, the horse, the apple, the heir, the unicorn.*"

2. Either may modify every[2] noun in a series in order to keep the nouns distinct in meaning and coördinate in rank: —

"A boy should so arrange what he has to say that it should have *a beginning*, *a middle*, and *an end*"; "*The closeness, the spirit, the strength*, and *the simple beauty* of his style are noteworthy."

3. Either may be used before each of two or more[3] adjectives modifying the same noun, when the qualities are to be kept distinct and prominent: —

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[1] Of course we are not here speaking (1) of the preposition *a* in 'He fasts *a* Friday"; or (2) of the dialectic *a*, the worn-down form of *have*, as in "She would *a* come"; or (3) of *a*, the corruption of *he* or *she*, as in "One night *a* left home." And we have seen that *the* in such a sentence as, "*The* more, *the* better," is not an article.

[2] Through the omission of the article in such sentences, even the best of authors sometimes slump together things they mean to keep apart, as in "Who never had *a taste* or *emotion* or *enjoyment*"; "*The distinctions* and *analogies* between *the verse* and *prose* of the poet"; "A forked bracket carries *a larger* and *smaller* pulley"; "No greater difference between *the older* and *newer* nomenclature."

[3] Care is needed that this use of the article be not mistaken for that in 4. The mistake is impossible when the adjectives denote qualities that cannot co-exist, as in "*A cold* and *a hot* stove"; "*The definite* and *the indefinite* article"; it is possible when the adjectives denote qualities that may co-exist.

"*An observant, a thoughtful*, and *a very intelligent* man is speaking"; "Jeremy Taylor was *the richest* and *the most captivating* rhetorician of his day."

4. Either may be used before each[1] of two or more adjectives when modifying different nouns that are not all expressed: —

"The difference between *a bad* and *a good* man is this"; "It can never reconcile *the secular* and *the devout, the pagan* and *the Christian mind.*"

5. Either may be used to make proper nouns common: —

"*A Daniel* come to judgment!" "He is *the Solon* of the Senate."

6. Neither is used before nouns[2] taken in their widest sense: —

"*Gold* is costlier than *silver*"; "*Woman* is the peer of *man*"; "*Oak* is stronger than *maple*"; "*Truth* in the end will vanquish *error.*"

Points of Distinction between *A* and *The*. — 1. *A* is used with nouns in the singular only; *the*, with nouns in the singular or the plural: —

"*A peach*" (but not *a peaches*); "*The peach, the peaches.*"

2. *A* is used with a concrete noun; *the*, more frequently than *a*, with an abstract noun as well: —

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[1] See foot-note to 2, third and fourth sentences, for mistakes arising from the omission of the article in such sentences.

[2] These sentences are incorrect: "This is a bad sort of *a day*"; "What kind of *a man* is he?" "*The anger* is a short madness."

"A rose" (but not *a sweetness* of a rose); "*The sweetness* of a rose, or of *the rose.*"

3. *A*[1] distinguishes one individual from others; *the*,[1] one class from others, as: —

"*A farmer* is ploughing, and *a blacksmith* is shoeing a horse"; "*The farmer* ploughs, and *the blacksmith* shoes horses."

4. *A* is indefinite, meaning 'any one'; *the* is definite, meaning 'that one,' as: —

"Hand me *a*, 'any,' book"; "Hand me *the*, 'that,' book."

5. *A* may mean 'one,' 'each,' or 'every'; *the* is not used so freely in such senses, as: —

"Both are of *a* (not *the*) length"; "Sixty pounds to *a* (not *the*) man."

6. *A* can be used with *few* and *little* to convert negative notions into positive; *the* cannot be used so, as: —

"*A few* passengers and *a little* of the luggage (not *the few* and *the little*) were lost."

7. *The* may be retrospective in its reference; *a* never is, as: —

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[1] At times the articles approach so closely in force, or have so little force, that it needs deliberation to settle whether *a* should be used or *the* or neither *a* nor *the*. Who sees a broad distinction between "*farmer* uses *a hoe*," "*A blacksmith* uses *a hammer*," and "*The farmer* uses *the hoe*," "*The blacksmith* uses *the hammer*"? between "The atmospheric pressure of 15 lbs. to *a square inch*" and "The atmospheric pressure of 15 lbs. to *the square inch*"? between "She is down with *a headache*," "She is down with *the headache*," and "She is down with *headache*"?

Yet we may say that no two words in the language need more delicate handling.

"I found a cap and an oilskin cape; *the cap* and *the oilskin* (not *a cap* and *an oilskin*) are yours."

8. *The* can change an adjective into an abstract noun or a concrete; *a* cannot, as:—

"Wordsworth showed how deep down *the pathetic* and *the tender* (not *a pathetic* and *a tender*) go in common life"; "*The gay* (not *a gay*) will laugh when thou art gone."

9. *The* may be used in place of *his, its,* or *your; a* may not be, as:—

"Plucked my nipple from *his* boneless gums and dashed *the* brains out"; "Such rebel blood that will not be thawed from *the* true quality"; "You shake *the* head."

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation.—Adjectives—Degrees. Rules for Spelling. Which Method of Comparison Gaining. Faulty Comparison. Proscribed Adjective Locutions. The Articles—Points of Agreement and of Disagreement.

Questions.—Definition of comparison? Of the three degrees? Rules for forming the comparative and the superlative. What even does the positive degree imply? Show that the comparative and the superlative do not express measure absolutely. By what adverbs other than *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, may increase or decrease be expressed? What other parts of speech than the adjective illustrate the rules for spelling? Why are the rules given here? Give the exceptions to the rules. Give adjectives from modern authors showing that the method in -er, -est is gaining favor. Give some showing that comparison is not restricted to adjectives whose meaning admits

of increase or decrease. Double comparatives and superlatives, what? Why used and when? The faulty comparisons fall under what two heads? Which degree, the comparative or the superlative, preferable with two? Which preferred, *first three* or *three first*, etc.? What are the articles? The derivation of each? When *an* used and when *a*? Give the six points of agreement between *a* and *the*. Give the nine points of distinction between *a* and *the*.

Exercises. — Give the rules and the exceptions to them that account for the spelling of *happiest*, *referred*, *gases*, *duties*, *shoeing*, *putting*, *oxen*, *dyeing*, *horses*, *loving*, *changeable*, *lady's*, *dried*. In sentences of your own illustrate (1) the points of agreement in the use of *a* and *the*; (2) the points of disagreement; and (3) give cases when *a* and *the* differ so little that either of them may be used or neither.

CHAPTER XV

THE VERB

A SENTENCE has two great parts — a subject and a predicate. The subject names or denotes that of which the predicate asserts something.

A sentence is framed to impart to hearer or reader something he is supposed not to know. This information is contained in the assertion made by the predicate; and the part of speech that makes the assertion is called a **Verb.**

The verb has many inflections; and it is the part of speech in English whose inflections have undergone the greatest change. Grammar consists in large measure of the treatment of the verb.

DEFINITION. — **A Verb is a word that asserts[1] action, being, or state of being.**

In the sentence

"John limps,"

the verb *limps* asserts the act fully; in

"John strikes,"

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[1] *Asserts* is here used to mean *declare* or *question* or *wish* or *command* or *exclaim* or to unite in any way the verbal sign of action, being, or state with that of the actor.

some word, as *Peter*, naming the receiver of the act, must be added to *strikes* to help it make a full assertion.

Verbs that represent the act as passing over from a doer to a receiver are called **Transitive**[1] **Verbs**; verbs (1) that do not so represent the act, and those (2) that express mere being or state of being are **Intransitive Verbs.**

Definitions

VERBS CLASSIFIED WITH RESPECT TO MEANING

A Transitive Verb is one that requires an object.

An Intransitive Verb is one that does not require an object.

All verbs, but not all of their forms, assert. Of the forms that do not assert, one is .

THE PARTICIPLE

"The birds, *singing* their morning songs, wakened us."

Here *singing* expresses an action, but does not assert it; the assertion is in *wakened.* But *singing* does more than express action, it modifies *birds;* hence it is not a

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[1] If we say, "Peter was struck by John," the verb is still transitive; but *Peter*, the name of the receiver, is here the subject, and not, as before, the object complement. The object of a transitive verb, then, the name of the receiver of the action, may be the **object complement**, or it may be the **subject.**

A verb transitive in one connection may be intransitive in another; as, "He *writes* a *letter*," and "He *writes* rapidly"; "The sun *melts* the *snow*," and "The snow *melts*." The verb is transitive only when an object is expressed or plainly understood.

verb simply but an adjective as well. Having a dual nature — one part of it verbal and one adjectival — *singing*[1] is here a **Participle.**[2]

DEFINITION. — **The Participle is a form of the verb that partakes of the nature of an adjective, and expresses the action or being as assumed.**

Remarks. — Participles are of the greatest service in enabling us — 1. to **slur** the **less important** acts, and reserve the verb proper for the more important; as, "Not *considering* or *knowing* the difference in the money or the greater cheapness of the bread, I *asked* for three-penny worth."

2. To **abridge** and **solidify** the **sentence** — the **participle** or the participle phrase **taking the place of** (1) an **independent clause**; as, "The fog settled down *hiding* everything from view"; (2) an **adjective clause**; as, "The only argument *known* to avail with the east wind is an overcoat"; and (3) an **adverb clause** of (*a*) **time**; as, "*Writing*, Johnson was a Latin slave; *conversing*, he was a Saxon prince"; (*b*) **cause**; as, "The air here, *robbed* of oxygen and *loaded* with carbonic gas, is unfit to breathe"; (*c*) **evidence**;

A preposition prefixed to an intransitive verb or following it may make it transitive. *Stand* or *run* are intransitive; but *understand* and *overrun*, in "I *understand* how the enemy *overran* the territory," are transitive. *Laugh* and *condole* are intransitive; but *laugh at* and *condole with*, in "He was *laughed at* and then *condoled with*," are transitive.

[1] In "The *singing* birds wakened us," *singing* is a pure adjective, it simply modifies *birds;* in "The *singing* of the birds wakened us," *singing* is a pure noun. It is only the subject of *wakened*.

[2] Besides the participle in **-ing**, there are those in **-en** or **-n**; those in **-ed**, **-d**, or **-t**; and those **without participial ending**.

This **-ing** is the O.E. ending **-ende** changed to **-inde**, **-inge**, **-ing**; so that the participle has become the same in form as the O.E. verbal noun. The **nd** of the O.E. ending is the **nt** of the Latin and of the Greek.

as, "*Living* fearlessly he must have lived aright"; (*d*) **purpose**; as, "The suppliants came *seeking* audience with the king"; (*e*) **condition**; as, "*Wishing* to be well spoken of, we must not speak well of ourselves"; and (*f*) **concession**; as, "Nature, *busied* with cares, yet finds something for her children to do."

3. To **gather many things into** the embrace of **the sentence**, yet leaving it **light** and **swift** of movement; as, "The crow sat with her little ones on a bough and gasped for breath, *holding* her wings half-spread, *turning* her head from side to side, and *peering*, for a sight of us, into the shade below."

4. To **diversify expression**. The finite verb in the clause tends to conclude the thought and to drop it; the participle sustains it. A judicious blending of the two gives a pleasing variety. Their union in the illustrative sentence of 3 is an example.

The **participle** with the noun in **absolute phrases** performs many of the functions just named and illustrated.

THE INFINITIVE

Another form of the verb, expressing action or being without asserting it, is the **Infinitive**—called so because it is not limited, as the **finite** forms are, to a subject controlling its number and person. But the infinitive, like the participle, may have an **assumed subject**—a word denoting that to which the action or being expressed by this verb belongs.

In English the infinitive is usually preceded by the preposition **to**,[1] and forms with it an **Infinitive Phrase**. The

[1] We do not regard *to* as part of the infinitive. Writers on language are generally agreed that when *to* introduces an infinitive phrase used as an adjective or an adverb, it

infinitives commonly without *to* are those that follow the verbs **bid, dare, feel, hear,**[1] **let, make, need,** and **see,** and the **auxiliary verbs can, may, must, shall,** and **will.**

The infinitive, like other forms of the verb, is followed by the various complements, and has the syntax of a noun.

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performs its proper function as a preposition, meaning *toward, for*, etc.; as, "I am inclined *to* believe"; "I came *to* hear." When the infinitive phrase is used as a noun, the *to* expresses no relation, we grant; it seems merely to introduce the phrase. But, when a word loses its proper function without taking on that of some other part of speech, we do not see why it should change its name. In the expressions, "*For* me to do this would be wrong"; "*Over* the fence is out of danger," few grammarians would hesitate to call *for* and *over* prepositions, though they have no antecedent term of relation.

We cannot see that *to* is a part of the verb, for it in no way affects the meaning, as does an auxiliary, or as does the *to* in "He *was spoken to.*" Those who call it a part of the verb confuse the learner by speaking of it as the "preposition *to*" (which they have said is not a preposition) "placed before the infinitive," *i.e.* placed before that of which it forms a part! The fact also that infinitives are used without *to*, strengthens our contention.

In O.E., *tō* was used with the infinitive only in the dative case, where it had its proper function as a preposition; as, nominative *etan*, to 'eat'; dative *tō etanne;* accusative *etan*. When the dative ending -ne was dropped, and the three forms were alike, the *tō* came to be used before the nominative and the accusative, but without expressing relation.

This dative of the infinitive with *tō* was used mainly to indicate purpose. When, after the dropping of the -ne ending, the idea of purpose had to be conveyed by the infinitive, it became usual in Elizabethan literature to place *for* before the *to*. "And *for to* deck heaven's battlements." — *Greene.* "What went ye out *for to* see?" — *Bible.* "Shut the gates *for to* preserve the town." — *King Henry VI., Part III.*

The -an ending of the O.E. infinitive, seen in *et*-an above, has dropped off along with other O.E. inflections; and we have now the simple form of the verb found in the stem — that seen in the first person indicative present, except in *be*.

[1] When such of these verbs as can be used in the passive voice are so used, the infinitive following them takes the *to;* as, "He *was heard to cry*, and *was seen to leap.*"

The **infinitive phrase**[1] may be used as an **adjective** modifier, as: —

"There is a time *to weep* as well as a time *to rejoice.*"

The **infinitive phrase** may be used as an **adverb** modifier, as: —

"And fools who came *to scoff*[2] remained *to pray.*"

The **infinitive phrase** may be used as a **noun** — as (1) **subject**; (2) **attribute complement**; (3) **object complement**; (4) **objective complement**; (5) **explanatory modifier**; (6) **principal term in a prepositional phrase**; and (7) may be **independent**, as: —

(1) and (2) "There are but few people whom *to know* intimately is *to dislike* thoroughly"; (3) "The oriole loves *to attach* its nest to the lithe branches of the tallest elms"; (4) "He made me (*to*) *wait*"; (5) "It is the assassin's purpose *to make* sure work"; (6) "Nothing was left to our fathers but *to fight* on to the end"; and (7) "Robins are feathered Pecksniffs, *to be* sure."

DEFINITION. — **The Infinitive is a form of the verb which names the action or being in a general way, without asserting it of anything.**

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[1] We are here speaking of the whole infinitive phrase and not of the verb alone in it. Indeed, in those phrases where the *to* has its full prepositional force, the verb performs the office of the principal word in a prepositional phrase — "Time *to weep*" = "Time *for weeping*"; "Bread *to sell*" = "Bread *for sale*"; "I went to see" = "I went *for seeing.*"

[2] The infinitive in the phrase expressing purpose is our substitute for the O.E. dative infinitive in -ne, which was preceded by tō and called a **Gerund**. This infinitive of ours is sometimes called a *gerundial infinitive* to distinguish it from those infinitives to which the *to* was extended when the -ne of the O.E. dative was dropped.

THE NOUNAL VERB

Another form of the verb does not assert. It is seen in

"Next in rarity to *catching* a weasel asleep is *seeing* a partridge drum"; "The *stretching* one's self out in a common car means a *curling* one's self up like a cat"; "John's *having gone* away was the signal for my return."

In (1) its endings, in being (2) transitive or intransitive, (3) simple or compound, (4) active or passive, and in having (5) a dual nature — one part verbal — this form of the verb is like a participle; but in having a dual nature one part nounal it is unlike a participle and like an infinitive.

Diversity of opinion concerning this form exists with respect to (1) some of its modifiers, and (2) its name. Some allow, while others deny, that *a*[1] and *the*[1] or a noun in the possessive[2] may modify it; and some call it (1) an *infinitive;*[3] some, (2) a *gerund;*[3] others, (3) a *verbal noun;*[3] and

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[1] We concede that the use of *a* and *the* to modify this form is hardly colloquial, and savors of the "old style," but we find such locutions too strongly intrenched in modern usage to put them under ban. From abundant gleanings we select these, found in H. Taylor, M. Arnold, Ruskin, and Lowell: "Rash were it and *a tempting* Providence should I proceed"; "Not *a making* war on them, not *a leaving* them out"; "*The wandering* about"; "*The doing* away with the qualification."

[2] No one hesitates to use a pronoun in the possessive, as in "*His being* a politician harmed him"; but some hesitate to use a noun in the possessive, as in "*John's being* a politician harmed him." Yet this -'s is often the only mark to distinguish the nounal verb from the participle, and save the sentence from fatal ambiguity or sheer nonsense. "The *man's* being a liar is universally believed" is an illustration.

[3] It taxes credulity to believe that a simple O.E. Infinitive in -an — only one form of which followed a preposition, and that always *tō* — has developed into compound forms active and passive, that follow almost any preposition, and are modified by *a* and *the* and by nouns and pronouns in the possessive.

others still, (4) a *participle*. For reasons given below, we call it a **Nounal Verb.**

DEFINITION.—**A Nounal Verb is a form of the verb partaking of the nature of a noun, and expressing action or being without asserting it.**

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Verbs — Transitive and Intransitive, the Participle, the Infinitive, the Nounal Verb.

A Gerund in O.E. is a simple form of the verb in the active voice — the dative case of the infinitive — used mainly to indicate purpose, and always preceded by *tō*. To call these disputed forms *Gerunds* is to stretch this term unwarrantably, making it cover words that sometimes (1) are highly compound; sometimes (2) are in the passive; sometimes follow (3) other prepositions than *to*, and sometimes (4) no preposition; sometimes are (5) subjects, and sometimes (6) objects; sometimes are modified (7) by *a* and by *the*, and sometimes (8) by nouns and pronouns in the possessive; and generally (9) do not indicate purpose at all.

To call these words modernized forms of O.E. *Verbal Nouns* in **-ung**, **-ing**, encounters the fact that such nouns were never compound and never had objects. These words are compound and have objects.

It has been customary, and the custom still has followers, to call these words *Participles* — a term appropriately denoting verbal forms dual in nature. But different names for the verbal forms one of whose natures is adjectival, and for those one of whose natures is nounal, are demanded. It seems reasonable, therefore, to restrict the name **Participle** to those words with a verb and an adjective nature, and to seek another name for those with a verb and a noun nature. **Nounal Verb** is such a name.

To call these forms in question *Verbal Nouns* is to classify them as nouns: to call them **Nounal Verbs** is to class them, as grammarians almost universally do, with verbs. Besides, the term **Nounal Verb** may help to distinguish between the true representatives of the old verbal nouns in **-ung** and the so-called *gerunds* or *infinitives* in **-ing.**

Questions. — The two great parts of a sentence? The information imparted in which part? A verb, what? Difference between transitive verbs and intransitive? Definitions? The object of a transitive verb may be either what or what? Must a verb transitive in one connection be so in another? What may make an intransitive verb transitive? What forms of the verb do not assert? The participle, what? Its endings, what? The O.E. present participle ending, what? The nd of this ending, what? How do participles enable us to slur the less important acts expressed in the sentence? What three kinds of clauses may participles take the place of? What diverse functions of the adverb clause may the participle assume? How may it aid in the movement of the sentence? How affect the expression? In what phrases may the participle with its noun do the same? What is the infinitive? Its assumed subject? What preposition usually precedes it? Reasons for calling this part of speech a preposition? After what verbs is this *to* before the infinitive omitted? But with what voice of such of these verbs as are transitive is the *to* used before the infinitive? The *to* with the infinitive forms what? Show the development from O.E. of our *to* before the infinitive. In the stem of the first person indicative present of what English verb do we not find the simple form of the verb? What three parts of speech may the infinitive phrase be used as? What seven offices of the noun may the infinitive phrase assume? What is a gerundial infinitive? What is the nounal verb? In what five particulars is it like a participle? In what particulars is it unlike? By what adjectives may it be modified? By nouns and pronouns in what case? One reason for the noun's being in the possessive before the nounal verb. By what other names is the nounal verb called by some grammarians? Why should it not be called an *infinitive?* A *gerund?* A *verbal noun?* Why is it thought better not to call it a *participle?* Reasons for calling it a *nounal verb.*

Exercises. — In sentences of your own finding show how a verb transitive in one connection may be intransitive in another. How a preposition prefixed to an intransitive verb or following it may make

it transitive. Give participles with their several endings and others without ending. In sentences of your own finding illustrate the several utilities of the participle in discourse. Give sentences where the *to* is omitted before the infinitive. Give sentences of your own finding, illustrating the seven noun uses of the infinitive phrase. Give a sentence showing the need of the -'s to distinguish the nounal verb from the participle.

CHAPTER XVI

THE VERB — (*Continued*)

MODIFICATIONS

VERBS have five **Modifications — Voice, Mode, Tense, Number,** and **Person.**

VOICE

"John *struck* Peter"; "Peter *was struck* by John."

Here the same thing is said in two ways. *Struck* in the first sentence shows that the subject names the actor; *was struck* in the second shows that the subject names the one acted upon.

These uses of the verb constitute the modification called **voice.** *Struck* is in the **active voice**; *was struck* is in the **passive voice.** The **object complement** of the verb in the **active voice** becomes the **subject** when the verb is changed to the **passive**; hence **only** those verbs with an object — **transitive verbs — have voice.**

DEFINITIONS

Voice is that modification of the transitive verb which shows whether the subject names the actor or the thing acted upon.

The Active[1] Voice shows that the subject names the actor.

The Passive[1] Voice shows that the subject names the one acted upon.

But this object need not be the object complement. The **indirect,** or dative, **object** may be made the **subject** of a verb in the **passive voice,** while the object complement is retained after the verb.

Change from the Active Voice to the Passive. — There are two ways in which the verb in such a sentence as

"They offered Cæsar the crown,"

may be changed into the passive voice. We may (1) make the object complement *crown* the subject, and say

"The *crown was offered* Cæsar";

or (2) make the indirect object *Cæsar* the subject, and say

"*Cæsar was offered* the *crown.*"

Both are legitimate, though the second[2] is questioned.

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[1] The active voice is used when the agent, or actor, is to be made prominent; the passive, when the thing acted upon is to be made prominent; as, "*Washington captured* Cornwallis"; "*Cornwallis was captured* by Washington." The passive voice may be used also when the agent is unknown, or when, for any reason, we do not care to name him, though known; as, "Money *is coined* at the mints"; "During the night, the shore *was strewn* with wrecks."

[2] This seems to violate the analogies of language, but it is an English idiom established by the best of usage. Here are a few illustrations from those we have gleaned, along with some from Mätzner's list — sentences from Shakespeare, Goldsmith, Coleridge, Hume, Macaulay, Fielding, Motley, Felton, and others: —

Crown in the second sentence is the object complement[1] of *was offered* — a verb in the passive voice.

The Passive — How Formed. — Except in the participle, the English verb, unlike the Latin and the Greek but like the German, has not and never had synthetic passive forms. The passive of the verb is compounded of some form of the verb *be*[2] and a past participle of a transitive verb — the first, the asserting word; the second, an attribute complement.

"I *was promised* a *book*"; "I *am* not *left* one *friend*"; "He *was given reason* to regret it"; "He *was told that Congress had adjourned*"; "The wealthy refugees *were* positively *denied admittance*"; "*Had* the Spartan *been asked*, '*What is the chief end of man?*'" "The merchant *was paid* thirty *pounds*"; "I *have been spared* the *trouble*"; "We *were shown* a *room*"; "You *would be taught* your *duty*"; "He *was forbidden access* to the sacrifices, and *was refused* the *protection* of law"; "He *was debarred* all *intercourse*"; "If I *may be allowed* a *word*."

[1] It is called an adverbial modifier, a retained object, a noun without grammatical construction. But the relation of the act to the person and to the thing is the same in "They offered Cæsar the crown" and "Cæsar was offered the crown." If, in the first, *crown* is the object complement of the verb, why is it not in the second?

In O.E., the dative *Cæsare* was placed first for emphasis; as, "*Cæsare* (to Cæsar) was offered the crown"; and, when the dative ending -e dropped, *Cæsar* was taken as subject, and the whole sentence remodeled in thought.

The usage of the Latin is instructive — "*Fuerant hoc rogati.*" *Hoc*, 'this,' is the accusative of *fuerant rogati*, 'they had been asked.'

[2] In O.E., *weorðan* as well as *wesan* or *bēon*, 'be,' was used to form the passive. The two verbs, *weorðan* and *bēon*, had little distinction in meaning or use.

This *weorðan*, 'become,' 'befall,' 'betide,' 'be,' is seen in "Woe *worth* (be to) the day"; "And now *worth* (was) the mede (maid) y-maried" — the *y* in *y-maried*, as in the modern but obsolete *yclad*, *yclept*, *ydrad*, being the form to which the prefix *ge* of the O.E. participle reduced before being dropped.

The abandonment of *weorðan*, as the asserting word in the passive, was accomplished in spite of the analogy of the German, whose passive always has *werden*, the correlative of *weorðan*. It took place, Mätzner and Professor Hadley think, through the "influence of the French principle of formation."

Peculiar Idiomatic Constructions. — English enjoys peculiar freedom in forming its passives. A transitive verb[1] which, in the active voice, is followed by an object complement and a prepositional phrase, may take, in the passive, the principal word of the phrase for subject, and retain the complement and the preposition to complete its meaning.

Forms Liable to be Mistaken. — An expression consisting of an asserting word followed by an adjective complement, or by a participle used adjectively, is easily mistaken[2] for a verb in the passive voice.

The Passive expressing Continuing Action. — The past participle joined to the forms of *be* usually represents an action as complete. To indicate continuing action in the passive voice it early became customary to use the

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[1] "The logical distinction was lost sight of"; "The anarchy was put an end to"; "Some of his characters have been found fault with."

In analyzing the first sentence, for example, some would regard *of* as an adverb relating to *was lost*, and *sight* as a noun used adverbially to modify *was lost;* some would treat *sight* as an object complement of *was lost;* and some would call *was lost sight of* a compound verb; while others, believing that the logical relation of these words is not changed by a change of position, would analyze the expression as if arranged thus: "Sight of the logical distinction was lost."

[2] In "This coat *is* sometimes *worn*," *is worn* is a verb in the passive voice; in "This coat *is* badly *worn*," *is worn* is not a verb in the passive; the incomplete predicate *is* is completed by *worn* used as an adjective attribute complement.

The liability to mistake is perhaps greatest with verbs of motion, as in "The middle of August *is come*"; "Thou *art fled* to brutish beasts"; "Sir Roger *is gone* out of the club"; "They to their grassy couch, these to their nests, *were slunk*."

In O.E., as in German, the perfect active has two forms, one with *have*, the other with *am* for intransitives; as, "He *has* a book *bought*." "He *is* to Rome *gone*."

The test of the passive voice is, that what is named by the subject is represented as being acted upon, and that the verb is, or may be, followed by the preposition *by* before the name of the agent.

verbal noun in **-ung, -ing** with the preposition *on*, M.E. *in*, spelled later *a*. This *a* was afterward suppressed.

"The house *is in building*," "The house *is a building*," "The house *is building*,"

exhibit the three ways successively taken to indicate action as going on in the present passive.

Now when the O.E. participle ending **-ende** had at last become **-ing**, the participle and the verbal noun, alike in form, were confounded, and *is building*, in

"The house *is building*,"

was regarded as *is* and the present participle of *build*.

But this combination — often ambiguous, as is seen later — is slowly yielding to a form consisting of *being* preceded by some other form of *be* and followed by the past participle of the verb used; as, *is being built*.

The Origin of the Passive. — It is thought that the common way of forming the passive in our family of languages grew out of a form originally reflexive. When, for example, one praises himself, then one is praised; and it is thought that the passive form,

"He *is praised*,"

could not have been used[1] till the reflexive,

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[1] This view is strengthened by the fact that the Greek has a third voice, called the *middle*, to express reflexive action; and that, in all but two tenses, the Greek passive and middle are similar.

"He *praises himself*,"

had been domesticated. It seems but natural to make the agent "the source, or starting point, from which the action proceeds."

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Voice — Change from Active to Passive, Passive how Formed, Passive expressing Continuing Action, Origin of Passive.

Questions. — What is the active voice? The passive? What, in the active voice, becomes subject in the passive? Hence only what verbs have voice? Definitions? What besides object complement, in the active, may become subject in the passive? Active voice preferred when? Passive when? Show that the indirect object of the verb in the active voice may become subject in the passive voice, and the object complement in the active remain object complement in the passive. This object complement in the passive is called what by some? The usage of the Latin, what? How is the passive formed in English? What verbs in O.E. are used as our *be* is in the passive? Whence the *y* in *yclept*, etc.? In spite of what analogy was *weorðan*

The endings of the verb in the Greek middle are lengthened forms of the personal pronouns used in the active voice; or they are double forms, in each of which the pronoun is twice expressed — as object and as subject.

The passive in Latin often has a reflexive meaning — doubtless a survival of the Greek middle. Most of the **Deponent Verbs** — passive in form, but not in meaning, as *uto*-r, 'I use' — are reflexive, and correspond to the Greek verb in the middle.

While admitting that the Scandinavian passive is the active plus the reflexive pronoun -**sik**, Jespersen does not regard the -r of the Latin passive — in *amo*-r, *amatu*-r, etc., 'I am loved,' 'He is loved' — as the -s of the reflexive pronoun *se*, 'self,' changed, by rhotacism, into -r. But Professor Hadley says, "It seems impossible to explain the Latin passive in any other way."

abandoned for *be* in the passive? Instance some peculiar idiomatic constructions in the passive. What forms liable to be mistaken? With what verbs is the liability greatest? How guarded against? The test of the passive voice? How was continuing action in the passive once indicated? The preposition *on* or *in* reduced to what and then dropped? The *is* and the word in -ing then taken for what? This combination always unambiguous? To what is it yielding? The passive grew out of a form originally what? What light does the Greek throw upon this point? The deponent verbs in Latin? The endings of the verb in the Greek middle voice are what? What is Jespersen's admission respecting the Scandinavian passive? His view respecting the -r in the Latin *amo*-r, *amatu*-r — 'I am loved,' 'He is loved'?

Exercises. — Illustrate what is said of the frequent choice of the passive voice; of the change from the active to the passive; of the forms liable to be mistaken; of the origin of the passive denoting continuing action; of the origin of the passive.

CHAPTER XVII

THE VERB — (*Continued*)

MODE

THERE are three ways in which action or being is asserted by the verb. If one says

"John *moves* rapidly,"

the action is asserted as a fact not depending for its existence upon one's thought concerning it. If he says

"If John *move* rapidly, he will reach the station in time,"

the action is asserted as a mere thought, without suggestion that it is, or will become, an actual fact. If he says

"John, *move* rapidly,"

the action is asserted not as a fact but as a command or an exhortation which John is ordered or requested to convert into a fact.

The manner in which action or being is asserted by the verb constitutes the modification called **Mode**. In the first quotation above, the verb is in the **Indicative Mode**; in the second, in the **Subjunctive Mode**; in the third, in the **Imperative Mode**.

Definitions

Mode is that modification of the verb which denotes its manner of asserting action or being.

The Indicative Mode asserts the action or being as a fact.[1]

The Subjunctive[2] **Mode asserts the action or being as a mere thought or conception or supposition or wish.**

The Imperative Mode asserts the action or being as a command, an exhortation, or an entreaty.

To these modes, a **Potential** has been added, in which the auxiliaries **can, could, may, might, should,** and **would** assert **power, liberty, possibility,** and **necessity** to do or to be.

But, when I say

"I *could do* it if I *would*,"

my ability is asserted as a thought whose translation into fact depends upon my willingness, which in the second clause is asserted as a mere conception—and each verb is clearly subjunctive. When I say

(1) "I *can do* it," (2) "I *may do* it," (3) "I *should do* it,"

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[1] In "Are you going?" or "You are going?" a fact is referred to the hearer for his admission or denial. In "Who did it?" the fact that some person did it is asserted, and the hearer is requested to name the person. It will thus be seen that the Indicative Mode may be used in asking a question.

[2] Called *subjunctive*, because commonly used in subjoined, or dependent, clauses—introduced by *if*, *lest*, *that*, *though*, etc. The name is misleading. The subjunctive is not always in a subjoined clause; and not every subjoined clause contains a subjunctive. *Conceptual*, Mason thinks, would be a better name.

not the doing, but my (1) ability, (2) liberty, (3) obligation to do, are asserted as facts — and each verb seems to be indicative.[1]

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[1] In his *English Grammar*, Bain puts it thus: —

"Such forms as 'I may see,' 'I can see,' have sometimes been considered as a variety of mood, to which the name 'Potential' is given. But there is no trace of any inflection corresponding to this meaning, as we find with the subjunctive. Moreover, such a mood would have itself to be subdivided into indicative and subjunctive forms: 'I may go,' 'if I may go.' And further, we might proceed to constitute other moods on the same analogy, as, for example, an obligatory mood — 'I must go,' or 'I ought to go'; a mood of resolution — 'I will go, you shall go'; a mood of gratification — 'I am delighted to go'; of depression — 'I am grieved to go.'"

It is necessary to say here that in an advanced work an author may properly discard a terminology permissible to him, and used, in a work more elementary.

He may, for instance, justify his use of a potential mode in an earlier treatise by urging (1) that to assert power, etc., to do is not to assert doing either as a fact or as a conception; (2) that the mode for asserting power (*potentia*) is not improperly *potential;* (3) that one can do good work with good tools, whatever their names; (4) that to call *may*, *can*, etc., *potential*, is the only disposition of them level to the youth's understanding; (5) that for the supreme purpose of use the pupil need master such subjunctive forms only as are seen in "If I *be*," "If I *were*," "If he *teach*"; (6) that, if the potential be discarded, to settle when *could*, *should*, etc., assert facts and are indicative, and when they assert conceptions and are subjunctive, is often difficult, if not impossible; and (7) that the pupil is disheartened by this needlessly created difficulty.

But such considerations, justifying such a course in an earlier work, the author may properly brush aside when preparing a work more advanced — more historical and scientific. His purpose now is not what it was then; he is writing for pupils able to understand and stand the whole truth. The science, too, between whiles has progressed; authorities have changed; lights once followed may now mislead; if not a Bourbon, his vision is keener and his horizon broader; he must base his present work upon principles then unknown, or purposely ignored if known.

And of principles that underlie modes there seems to be none more fundamental and philosophical than this: For **asserting facts**, the **indicative** is used; for **asserting** mere **conceptions**, the **subjunctive**.

These are the reasons for our **use** of the **Potential** in *Graded Lessons* and *Higher Lessons*, and for our **disuse of it** in **this treatise**. We may summarize thus: *Tempora mutantur, et nos mutamur in illis* — rendering *tempora* freely.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Subjunctive Forms. — The subjunctive mode has no inflectional endings. It omits the indicative **-s** from its third person singular active present; it uses *be* in place of *am, art, is,* and *are; were* in place of *was;* and *wert* in place of *wast.*

The Subjunctive in O.E. — In O.E., the subjunctive is used in **simple sentences,** and in the **principal clauses** of complex sentences, to express (1) **wish,** (2) **command,** and (3) **direct questions**; in (4) **explanatory noun clauses,** and (5) **object noun clauses** containing an **indirect question** or **quotation**; in (6) **indefinite adjective clauses**; and in **adverb clauses** (7) of **time,** (8) **place,** (9) **manner,** (10) **condition,** (11) **concession,** (12) **purpose,** and (13) **result** — as in the sentences below.[1]

The Decline of the Subjunctive. — A noteworthy point respecting the subjunctive mode in English is its decline.

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[1] "Wā lā! *āhte* ic geweald," "Oh! that I *had* the power"; (2) and (6) "*Gehȳre,* se ðe eāran *hæbbe,*" "*Hear,* he who *has* ears"; (8) and (12) "Hwæt *dō* ic ðæt ic ēce līf *hæbbe?*" "What *may* I *do* that I *may have* eternal life?" (4) "Swylce ðæt is gesewen ðæt hē *wǣre* gewiss," "It also is seen that he *was* certain"; (5) "Geseoh ðū, cyning, hwilce ðeōs lār *sīe,*" "Thou sawest, O King, what kind of doctrine this *is,*" and (5) "Cwædon hie ðæt him nǣnig mǣg leōfra *nǣre,*" "They said that no kinsman *was* dearer to them"; (7) "Ǣr ðǣm ðe Rōme burg *getimbred wǣre,*" "Before the City of Rome *was built*"; (8) "Hafa bletsunge ðǣr ðū *fēre,*" "Have a blessing wherever thou *mayest go*"; (9) "Dō swā ðē ðynce," "Do as *seems* best to thee"; (10) and (13) "Gif man *sīe* dumb oððe deāf *geboren* ðæt hē ne *mǣge* his synna *geandettan,*" "If one *is born* dumb or deaf so that he *can* not *confess* his sins"; and (11) "Ne forseah Crīst his geongan cempan ðeāh hē līchamlīce on heora slege andweard *nǣre,*" "Christ did not despise his young warriors, though he *was* not present in body at their slaughter."

The subjunctive *be, were,* and *wert* are disappearing, as is the form without -s in the third singular present active.

This does not mean that the differences between the indicative and the subjunctive are vanishing, but that we are caring less than formerly for those subtile distinctions which the subjunctive alone expresses, and are substituting assertions of fact for assertions of what is merely conceived.

1. In (2) of the preceding foot-note, O.E. may use the subjunctive or the imperative; Mn.E. uses the imperative alone.

2. In (3), (4), (6), and (9), O.E. may use the indicative or the subjunctive; Mn.E. uses the indicative alone.

3. In (1) and (11), O.E. uses the subjunctive alone; Mn.E. uses the subjunctive only in part.

And elsewhere along the line the subjunctive is retreating.

The Uses of the Subjunctive in Modern English. — The subjunctive is still used

1. In **Simple Sentences** expressing a **wish** (1) **possible** of realization, or (2) **impossible**. It may be used

2. In the **Principal Clause** of a complex sentence whose **dependent clause** is (3) a **condition,** (4) a **concession,** or (5) an **explanatory noun clause.** It may be used

3. In a **Noun Clause** (6) **explanatory,** or consisting of an **indirect question** used (7) as **subject,** or (8) as **object complement.** It may be used

4. In an **Adverb Clause** (9) of **time,** (10) of **concession,** (11) of **purpose,** (12) of **condition** of whose **fulfillment** the speaker is **certain,** (13) of **condition** of whose **non-fulfillment** the

speaker is **certain**, (14) of **condition** of whose **fulfillment** or **non-fulfillment** the speaker is **uncertain**, and (15) **generally**, in asserting anything **hypothetically**, as a mere supposition or conception, as: —

(1) "Thy kingdom *come*," "God *be* with you" = 'good-bye'; (2) "Oh! that I *were* President"; (3) and (13) "I *would* not *go* if I *were* you"; (4) and (10) "He *would* not *have risen* though an angel *had called* him"; (5) and (6) "It *were* better for him that a millstone *were hanged* about his neck"; (7) "Whether it *were* a dream or a reality was questioned"; (8) "I know not whether there *be* any such"; (9) "I will stay here till she *return*"; (10) "Though the weather *grow* dark, we'll trim our broad sail as before"; (11) "Take care lest your speech *betray* you"; (12) "If there *be* such a thing as right, it will finally prevail"; (13) and (3) "If he *were* here, you *would* not *say* that"; (14) "If it *rain* to-morrow, the roads will be muddy"; (15) "The ship leaps madly, as it *were*, from billow to billow."

Remarks. — 1. In the kinds of clauses named and numbered above, the subjunctive may still be employed. But in most of them the indicative is now ordinarily used. It does not, however, discharge the office of the subjunctive, but gives instead an unmistakable color of fact to the assertion.

We may, for instance, substitute in (7), "Whether it *was*"; in (8), "Whether there *are*"; in (9), "Till she *returns*"; in (10), "Though the weather *grows*"; in (12), "If there *is*"; and in (14), "If it *rains*." But in these substitutes the nature of the original assertions is changed.

2. Sentences (8), (9), (10), (12), and (14), whose subordinate clauses are in the subjunctive, have their principal clauses in the indicative; sentences (3), (4), (6), and (13), whose subordinate clauses are in the subjunctive, have their principal clauses also in the subjunctive. The mode of the principal clause is not then deter-

mined by that of the subordinate, but, as is that of the subordinate itself, by the character of the assertion to be made.

3. "*May* thy kingdom *come*"="Thy kingdom *come*"; "Oh! that I *might be*"="Oh! that I *were*"; "It *would be* better"="It *were* better"; "Though the weather *should grow* dark"="Though the weather *grow* dark"; "If he *could be*"="If he *were*"; "If it *should rain*"="If it *rain*."

If the second members[1] of these equations are subjunctive, as all allow, it would seem that the first must be.

4. In sentences with a condition the grand distinction between the indicative and the subjunctive is brilliantly illustrated. In (12) and (13) above, the speaker's certainty respecting the condition does not lead him to use the indicative, and in, "If it *is* cloudy to-night, there *will be* no rain," the speaker's uncertainty respecting the condition[2] does not lead him to use the subjunctive. His state of mind regarding the fulfillment of the condition has nothing to do in determining the mode he uses in the condition. If he chooses to leave the condition open, putting it neither (1) as a fact, though he knows it is already fulfilled or will be, nor (2) as contrary to fact, though he knows it is not fulfilled or will not be, he uses

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[1] In "Should it rain, the roads will be muddy," *rain*, of the first clause, is an infinitive; and so is *be*, of the second. But however thoroughly we may, as here, analyze periphrastic verb phrases, and determine the function of auxiliary, infinitive, or participle in them, we must remember that the verb phrase as a whole has an office; that, of this phrase, mode is as predicable as voice or tense or any other modification; and that one mode is as predicable as another.

[2] The **subjunctive** is **more frequent** in **conditional clauses** than elsewhere; yet, as we see above, it is not always used in them.

Frequently the **condition** is (1) **entirely suppressed**, or (2) only **suggested** by a **single word** or a **phrase**; as, (1) "He would not hesitate to say that" (*if he were asked* being suppressed); "*Then*, or *in that case* (='if that were so'), I would spread my branches far around."

The if may be **omitted** from **condition clauses** without affecting the mode; as, "*Were* this so"="*If* this *were* so"; "*Had* I *known* it"="*If* I *had known* it"; "*Should* we *fail*"="*If* we *should fail*."

the subjunctive. If, though uncertain of its fulfillment or non-fulfillment, he chooses to speak of it as a fact, he uses the indicative.

5. But for (1) the use of *be*, *were*, and *wert* in place of other forms of the substantive verb, and (2) the absence of ending in the present third singular of other verbs, the subjunctive has nothing outward to distinguish it from the indicative. Knowing, then, that the subjunctive is waning, we doubtless often call forms indicative that are really subjunctive.

THE IMPERATIVE MODE

The Person, Number, and Tense of the Imperative. — A command or an entreaty is addressed to one or to more, and therefore the **imperative** is always in the **second person,**[1] **singular** or **plural**; and, though the act which it enjoins can be performed only in time succeeding the command, the **tense** used is the **present.**

The indicative may take the place of the imperative, as in

"Thou *shalt* not *kill*"; "You *shall go*"; "You *must leave*"; "*Will* you not *go* instantly?"

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[1] From such forms as, "*Let us sing*," "*Let them talk*," some grammarians make a first and a third person imperative. But *us* is not the subject of the verb phrase *let-sing*, and *let* is not of the first person. *Us* is the object complement of *let*, and the infinitive *sing* is the objective complement, having *us* for its assumed subject.

Some would find a first and a third person imperative in such sentences as, "Now tread we a measure," "Perish the thought." But the verbs here are in the **subjunctive**, though they simulate an imperative by using its order of words and its vocal tone.

The **subject**—*you* or *thou*—is usually **omitted** with the **imperative.**

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation.—Mode—the three Kinds. The Subjunctive—in O.E. and in Mn.E. Remarks on. The Imperative.

Questions.—Mode, what? The three modes, what? Subjunctive, why called so? A misnomer? The so-called potential, needed? The underlying principle of the indicative, what? Of the subjunctive, what? Has the subjunctive any inflectional ending? What three forms of the substantive verb does it use? And for what indicative forms? In what thirteen ways is the subjunctive used in O.E.? In what ones of these ways may the imperative or the indicative be used in Mn.E.? Give the uses of the subjunctive in Mn.E. What mode is ordinarily employed in the kinds of clauses where the subjunctive might be used? Does the substituted indicative discharge the exact office of the subjunctive? What color does it give to the assertion? Does the mode in either the principal or the subordinate clause determine that in the other clause? What determines the mode in both? What sentences brilliantly illustrate the distinction in the use of the two modes? Is the subjunctive always used in conditions? When only? Is the condition ever entirely suppressed? By what may it be only suggested? Is the *if* always used in conditions? What only that is outward distinguishes the subjunctive? What mistake are we liable therefore to make? In what person is the imperative always used? Is the subject of the imperative usually expressed? A wish is expressed in what mode? A sentence beginning with *let* is in what mode?

Exercises.—In sentences of your own coinage or finding exhibit all the uses of the subjunctive in Mn.E. See in how many of these the indicative may be substituted, and with what change in the nature of the assertion. Find sentences in which the condition is entirely suppressed; in which it is only suggested; in which the *if* is omitted from the condition; in which the indicative commands.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE VERB — (*Continued*)

TENSE

The Time of the Verb. — The action or being expressed by the verb must be asserted as occurring in time — **time present, time past,** or **time future.**

But, to express the time precisely, we have to assert of some things (1) their occurrence within a period of time now ending; (2) their occurrence before some point of time already past; or (3) their occurrence before some point of time yet future.

Tense — in its Essential Office of Time. — The modification imposed upon the verb by the time in which the verb represents the action or being as occurring is called **Tense.**

No modification of the verb is more significant; in German the verb is even named *Zeitwort,* 'time-word.'

Names of the Tenses. — There are in English six tenses — (1) the **Present,** (2) the **Past,** (3) the **Future,** (4) the **Present Perfect,** (5) the **Past Perfect,** and (6) the **Future Perfect** — illustrated thus: —

(1) "He *walks*"; (2) "He *walked*"; (3) "He *will walk*"; (4) "He *has walked*"; (5) "He *had walked*"; (6) "He *will have walked.*"

The present, the past, and the future are **simple tenses**; the present perfect, the past perfect, and the future perfect are **compound tenses**, each marking two phases of time — that of **time anterior**, or **preceding**, along with that respectively of **time present, time past, time future.**

Tense — in its Incidental Offices. — The **compound tenses**, illustrated in

"He *has walked*"; "He *had walked*"; "He *will have walked*,"

assert the action as **complete** respectively in time present, past, and future.

The **simple tenses**, illustrated in

"He *is walking*"; "He *was walking*"; "He *will be walking*";

and the **compound tenses**, illustrated in

"He *has been walking*"; "He *had been walking*"; "He *will have been walking*,"

assert the act as **incomplete, continuing**, respectively in time present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect.

The **simple tenses**, illustrated in

"He *walks*"; "He *walked*"; "He *will walk*,"

assert the act neither as complete nor as incomplete; but, with reference to completion, as neutral, or **indefinite**.[1]

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[1] Professor Sweet speaks of another tense, illustrated in "I knew how it *would turn* out." The action is here represented as future with respect to the time expressed

Definitions

Tense is that modification of the verb which expresses the time of the action or being.

The Present Tense expresses action or being as present.

The Past Tense expresses action or being as past.

The Future Tense expresses action or being as yet to come.

The Present Perfect Tense expresses action or being as ended at the present time.

The Past Perfect Tense expresses action or being as ended at some past time.

The Future Perfect Tense expresses action or being to be ended at some future time.

The **participle**, the **infinitive**, and the **nounal verb** — forms that do not assert — also **have** this modification of **tense**, though they are not used in all tenses.

The **participle** is used in the **present**, **past**, and **past perfect** tenses, as in

"*Hearing* a voice, he rose"; "The voice *heard* was an enemy's"; "*Having heard* it, he fled."

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by *knew;* but not future measuring from the present — as in "I *know* how it *will turn* out." He calls this tense **future preterit.**

It is manifest that **the completeness, the incompleteness,** and **the indefiniteness** of an act are **not time distinctions.** It happens that in one form of the compound tenses the action or being is represented as complete; and in the other, as continuous. But these tenses, as tenses, mark the time within which the action or being occurs. The same may be said of the incompleteness and of the indefiniteness of the action asserted by the simple tenses — illustrated above.

Definitions

The Present Participle denotes action or being as continuing at the time indicated by the predicate.

The Past Participle denotes action or being as past or ended at the time indicated by the predicate.

The Past Perfect Participle denotes action or being as ended at a time previous to that indicated by the predicate.

The **infinitive** is used in the **present** and in the **present perfect**, as: —

"(*To*) *ride* is easier than (*to*) *walk*"; "He is said (*to*) *have walked* a mile."

The **nounal** verb is used (1) in the **present** and the **past perfect**, as: —

(1) "*Doing* good is the surest way of *getting* good"; (2) "I remember his *being appointed* consul," "Brown's *having been made* chairman prevented a quarrel."

Uses of the Tenses

The tenses are **fluid** in the expression of time — denoting (1) actions or states **rigidly restricted in time** to that which these tenses ordinarily denote, and (2) actions or states **not thus restricted.**

They express incidental phases of the action or being not included in its time.

The Present Tense. — The present tense expresses an action (1) as **happening**[1] in present time; (2) as **continuing** in present time; (3) as **frequently repeated** in present time; and (4) as **habitual** in present time. It expresses (5) what will take place in **future** time;[2] and (6) what is **true at all times.** It is used to **picture vividly** (7) what **happened**[3] in **past** time; and (8) what one **imagines will happen** in **future** time, as: —

(1) "It *snows*"; (2) "He *lives* with his mother"; (3) "He *writes* home daily"; (4) "My father *goes* to bed at nine"; (5) "I *leave* to-morrow and *return* on Monday"; (6) "The sun *rises* in the east and *sets* in the west"; (7) "The fifth of September, 1774, *dawns*, the delegates to the first Continental Congress *assemble*, they *march* along the street, and *reach* the threshold of this hall"; (8) "A field of the dead *rushes* red on my sight, and the clans of Culloden *are scattered* in flight."

The Past Tense. — The past tense expresses past actions or states (1) as **momentary** in duration; and (2) as **continuous**, or customary. It expresses what one imagines might take place (3) in **present** time, and (4) in **future** time, as: —

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[1] Instead of the indefinite form of the present in (1) and (2), the **continuing** form is frequent, as in "It *is snowing*," "He *is living* with his mother." In **questions**, we employ the **continuing** form or use the auxiliary **do**, as in "*Is* it *snowing?*" "*Does* it, or *does* it not, *snow?*" "*Is* he *living?*" "*Does* he, or *does* he not, *live* with his mother?"

[2] The present of *be* and an infinitive, with or without *going*, *about*, etc., are frequently used in expressing what will occur in the future, as in "He is *going to speak*"; "He is *about to speak*"; "He *is to speak*."

[3] This is called the **historical present.**

(1) "He *paused*, *shook* his head, *started* on, *stopped*, *snuffed* the candle, and *shook* his head again"; (2) "He *hoarded* and *saved* and *pinched* and *shaved*, and the more he *had* the more he *craved*"; (3) "*Were* he here, he *would enjoy* this"; (4) "If I *should go*, you *would miss* me."

The Future Tense. — The future tense expresses an action or state (1) in the **unlimited future**; (2) in the **limited future**; (3) as **habitual** in the future, as: —

(1) "I *shall see* you there"; (2) "I *shall see* you before you go"; (3) "An intelligent people *will be* a free people."

The Present Perfect Tense. — The present perfect expresses an action as taking place (1) **recently** but within the period of time now ending; (2) **long ago** but within the period now ending; (3) **frequently** in the period now ending; (4) **continuing** in the period now ending; and **to take place** (5) in **future** time, as: —

(1) "I *have eaten* my dinner"; (2) "Christ *has taught* us our duty to our fellows"; (3) "I *have slept* soundly every night"; (4) "He *has been* principal of the school for years"; (5) "When I *have read* the book, you may have it."

The Past Perfect Tense. — The past perfect expresses (1) action or being as **completed** at some **point** in **past** time; and (2) in a **condition clause** it may express **simple past** time, as: —

(1) "I *had recited* when you entered"; (2) "*Had* I *known* it, I should have called."

The Future Perfect has only the function given it in the definition.

Tense Signs in English. — In the past tense, indefinite active, we have what we may call a *tense sign*, or ending, — the **-ed** — seen in the preterit *walk*-**ed**. Not all verbs have it, however; some change their stem vowel to indicate past time, as *drive* to *drove*. The participles ending **-ing**, **-en**, and **-ed**, seen in *driv*-**ing**, *driv*-**en**, and *liv*-**ed**, also are indicative of time.

How the Tenses are formed. — Speaking generally, the English verb forms its compound tenses by the aid of auxiliary verbs. These auxiliaries are *be*,[1] *can*, *do*, *have*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, and *will* in their various forms.

DEFINITION. — **Auxiliary Verbs are those that help in the conjugation of other verbs.**

THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

1. **In Clauses.** — The tenses of dependent clauses are influenced, some say determined, by those in the principal clauses. The law expressing the sequence is this: A present or a future tense in the principal clause requires a present or a future in the dependent; a past tense in the principal, a past in the dependent, as: —

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[1] These verbs aid in forming the tenses of other verbs, and so are auxiliary. As to their present syntax in the verb phrases they help to make, it seems idle to speculate — "worse than useless," Wrightson says.

"He *writes* that he *is* well or soon *shall be*"; "I *will go* if I *shall* then *be* alive and *am allowed* to go"; He *enlisted* because he *was forced* to do so."

To this rule there are **two accepted limitations** — (1) where the dependent clause expresses a universal truth,[1] and (2) where it contains a direct quotation, as: —

(1) "He *died* in the faith that God *is* love"; "Who *says* or *said*, 'I *am*, *was*, and ever *shall be* a Whig'?"

But the law, thus restricted, **needs further limitations** to account for the sequence in such sentences as these: —

(1) "I *hurt* myself so badly that I *am* still lame and *shall* always *be*"; (2) "He *is* unable to walk because he *was born* a cripple"; (3) "Though we *had been* enemies before, yet we *are* friends now"; (4) "I *wish* to see the man who *would venture* to say that"; (5) "The duty *is* so clear that all *should heed* it"; (6) "If wars *were* bloody then, what *are* they now?" (7) "If wars *are* cruel now, what *were* they then?" (8) "I *learned*, or *had learned*, before you told me, where he *lives*"; (9) "No one that *served* under Washington *is* now *living*"; (10) "Many a year *has passed* since I *saw* him"; (11) "It *is* hardly credible that with his pen, Scott *paid* off the firm's debt of $600,000"; (12) "It *rained* last night, for the ground *is* wet this morning."

In the order of time, agencies of any kind naturally precede; consequences of any kind follow, and those of which men ordinarily speak follow immediately or soon.

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[1] The tense in such a clause is usually present, as in the illustration. But, if the speaker does not wish to vouch for the truth of the proposition, he may convert the proposition into an indirect quotation in the past tense; as, "He said that virtue *was* its own reward."

If, then, in the principal clause we speak of an effect or a result as occurring in past time, in the dependent clause we naturally speak of the cause or condition of it as occurring in time preceding — that is, in past time also.

Limiting himself to a narrow time interval between the actions asserted in the two clauses, the speaker **conforms to the law** for the sequence of tenses — both verbs are in the same time.

But he may wish (1) to extend the time interval, and regard the consequences of preceding agencies as continuing down to the moment in which he is speaking or even beyond it; or he may wish (2) to disregard the natural order of events, and, in the principal clause, speak of something whose condition or reason or ground of inference or of existence is, in the dependent clause, asserted in the present or the future tense.

In each of these cases,[1] the speaker **transgresses the law** — in (1) by using a present or a future tense in the principal clause and a past tense in the dependent; in (2) by using a past tense in the principal clause, and a present or a future in the dependent.

2. **In the Infinitive.** — The **present infinitive** expresses an act as (1) **present**, or (2) **future** — and the **present perfect** ex-

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[1] These added limitations of the law cover its infractions illustrated in the numbered sentences above.

Those sentences containing *would* and *should* are perhaps only seeming infractions; since, as we point out, in foot-note, p. 199, *would* and *should*, though preterit in form, often have nothing of past time in them.

presses it as (3) **finished** — at the **time** indicated by the **principal verb**, as: —

"I *am* glad (1) to *meet* you, or (3) to *have met* you"; "We *hoped* (2) to *see* you there"; "He *would* not *have dared* (2) to *do* that"; "She *meant* or *intended* or *expected* (2) to *go*" (not to *have gone*[1]).

3. **In the Participle and the Nounal Verb.** — The **present participle** expresses an act **synchronous** with that of the **verb** whose subject or object it modifies, as: —

"*Seeing* the dog, or *being seen* by him, the boy runs, ran, will run," etc.

The **past participle**, unchanged in form, **expresses** an **act** (1) **continuous** and so **synchronous**, with that of the **verb**; or (2) **complete** and hence **preceding** that of the **verb**, as: —

(1) "*Hated* by every one, he, this morning, leaves, left, will leave, has left," etc.; (2) "*Shot* by a sportsman, the duck is being eaten, was eaten, will be eaten," etc.

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[1] "I *ought* to *have gone*" is exceptional. *Ought* has no past tense, and the present perfect infinitive is used to make the expression refer to past time.

On the use of the present perfect infinitive to express future action, the *Standard Dictionary* says, "The doubling of the past tenses in connection with the use of *have* with a past participle is proper and necessary when the completion of the future act was intended before the occurrence of something else mentioned or thought of. Attention to this qualification, which has been overlooked in the criticism of tense formation and connection, is especially important and imperative. If one says, 'I meant *to have visited* Paris and *to have returned* to London before my father *arrived* from America,' the past [present perfect] infinitive . . . is necessary for the expression of the completion of the acts purposed. 'I meant *to visit* Paris and *to return* to London before my father *arrived* from America,' may convey suggestively the thought intended but does not express it."

The **past perfect participle** expresses the act as **preceding** that of the verb, as: —

"*Having seen* or *having been seeing* the dog, or *having been seen* by him, the boy runs, ran, will run," etc.

Between the **present** and the **past perfect** of the **nounal verb, usage** makes little distinction. It allows us to say

"After *telling* him, I came home"; or "After *having told* him, I came home."

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Tense, Tenses — Essential and Incidental Offices, Various Uses, Sequence with Indicative and Subjunctive Clauses, with Infinitives, Participles, and Nounal Verbs.

Questions. — The action or being expressed by the verb must be in one or other of what three great divisions of time? What necessity for a subdivision of these three in expressing time more precisely? Tense, what? Names of tenses? The simple tenses? The compound? These mark each what two phases of time? The incidental offices of tenses denoted by *complete*, *continuing*, and *indefinite?* Are these time distinctions? What seventh tense does Professor Sweet add? Definitions. In what tenses is the infinitive used? The participle? The nounal verb? Give the various uses of the several tenses. The continuing form in the present used instead of what? The auxiliary *do* instead of what? The historical present, what? What are the tense signs in English? Compound tenses formed how? Definition of auxiliary verbs? Name these. The law for sequence of tenses? Two accepted limitations? As thus limited, why still too sweeping? What limitations added? Ground for them? With respect to the time of the principal verb, the present infinitive

expresses the act in what time? The present perfect, how? With reference to the principal verb, the present participle represents an act how? The past participle, in what two ways? The past perfect participle, how? What is said of the two tenses of the nounal verb? The remark made in the *Standard Dictionary* extends what?

Exercises. — Give sentences of your own containing simple and compound tenses that illustrate incomplete, or continuing, action. Give sentences of your own that contain compound tenses expressing complete action. That contain simple tenses expressing indefinite action. Give sentences of your own that illustrate the infinitive, the participle, and the nounal verb in their several tenses. Give sentences that illustrate the fluid nature of the several tenses; that require added limitations to the law for the sequence of tenses in clauses; that illustrate the tenses of infinitives and participles with reference to that of the principal verb.

CHAPTER XIX

THE VERB — (*Continued*)

NUMBER AND PERSON

DEFINITION. — **The Number and Person of a verb are those modifications that show its agreement with the number and person of its subject.**

RULE. — **A Verb must agree with its subject in number and person.**

In the **common style,** most verbs have but the one distinguishing number and person ending **-s,**[1] found in the third singular present of the indicative — *beat*-**s,** *lead*-**s.**

In the **solemn style,** the second person singular has the ending **-est, -st,** or **-t,** as in *walk*-**est,** *ha*-**st,** *wil*-**t**; and the third has **-eth,** or **-th,** as in *look*-**eth** and *do*-**th.**

The rule is almost invariable as respects number when there is but one subject. If this is plural, the verb is plural;[2] if this is singular, the verb is singular.

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[1] See p. 231, for the ending -es, as in *vex*-es, *fli*-es, etc.

Need and *dare*, when followed by an infinitive without *to*, are generally used instead of need-s and dare-s; as "He *need* not go"; "He *dare* not go."

[2] Plural nouns naming things taken as one whole take a verb in the singular: as, "Ten *miles is* a long walk"; "Six *months is* what?"

A seeming exception, and the source of many mistakes, is found with nouns plural in form, but singular as used; as, "His *Lives of the Poets is* (not *are*) John-

But some cases where there are two or more singular nominatives require special notice. In general we may say that

Two or more singular nominatives, connected by *and*, require the verb to be plural.

Exceptions to this rule occur (1) when the connected subjects name the same thing; (2) when the second subject is a synonym of the first and is added to emphasize it; (3) when the second is closely allied in meaning with the first; (4) when the subjects form a climax; (5) when the subjects follow the verb, and emphasis is gained by making the verb agree with the nearest; (6) when an attribute noun or pronoun precedes the verb and attracts the verb to agreement with it; and (7) when two or more subjects name two or more things taken as one whole, as:—

(1) "My old *friend* and *patron was* there"; (2) "The *head* and *front* of my offence *is* this"; (3) "*Anything* and *everything suggests* itself to him"; (4) "His *fortune*, *name*, *liberty*, and very *life was* at stake"; (5) "His *was* the *plan*, the *execution*, and the *success* of the attack"; (6) "*What is* your name and station?" and (7) "*Bread* and *butter is* nutritious."

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son's best work"; "*Mathematics is* (not *are*) an invigorating study"; "The *United States is* (not *are*) respected abroad." *News*, *measles*, etc. are other nouns often misused as plurals.

Another source of mistakes in the number of the verb is a noun in the plural or two nouns in the singular, found in a prepositional phrase preceding the verb; as, "The captain, besides the *passengers*, *was* (not *were*) saved"; "The son, in addition to the *daughter* and *mother*, *is* (not *are*) sick"; "The lieutenant, with many of his *soldiers*, *was* (not *were*) wounded."

The mistake is made most frequently when *with* is used.

Some **seeming**[1] **exceptions** to the rule occur where there are obvious ellipses of the verb, as (1) when the second subject is used for emphasis; (2) when the subjects are connected by *as well as*, 'and'; (3) when the subjects are individualized by *each, every, many a, no,* or *not;* and (4) when all the subjects follow the verb, as:—

(1) "All *this*, and *much* besides, *appears* to forbid it"; (2) "*Time, as well as* thought, *was* needed"; (3) "*Each boy* and *each girl was* questioned," "*Every man* and *woman was* lost," "Many a *maid* and her *lover laments* that ride," "*No people* and *no tribe* ever *lacks* that," "*Not* my head and *not* my heart *consents*"; (4) "There *was running* and *leaping* and *shouting* that day."

When one of the subjects is affirmative and the other negative, the verb agrees with the affirmative, as:—

"*Stories*, and *not study*, *were* preferred"; "*Hunting*, and *not fishing* and *sailing*, *was* his favorite sport."

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[1] Possibly some of these seeming exceptions are only duplicates of the real ones illustrated above. Possibly, too, both groups of illustrations do not exhibit all the authorized departures, or apparent departures, from the rule.

In the third volume of the *Journal of Philology*, Fitzgerald Hall has collected scores of sentences that really or apparently violate the rule. Some of them, not already accounted for, perhaps, may be, thus: "But in fearful truth the *presence* and the *power of him is* here" (a common modifying phrase unifies the two subjects); "*Great natural energy* and *generosity has* been manifested" (common modifying adjectives unify the two subjects); "There *has* been a *simplicity* and *humility* in his letters" (failure to repeat, before *humility*, the distinguishing *a* unifies the two subjects); "Already there *appears* a poverty of conception, a coarseness and vulgarity in all the proceedings" (euphony unconsciously influences the writer to add -s — sounded as z — to *appear*, before the *a*).

The rule we have been considering has certainly received a loose interpretation from modern writers, and from earlier ones a looser still.

When two or more subjects are connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees in number with but one, and that the nearest, as: —

"Neither the *pupils*[1] nor the *teacher*[1] *was* satisfied"; "Either *he* alone *or they* all *are* wrong."

A collective noun, singular[2] in form, has its verb (1) in the singular when the collection is taken as a whole; (2) in the plural when the individuals composing the collection are thought of, as: —

(1) "The *jury was* composed of twelve farmers," "The *number* present *was* not reported"; (2) "The *jury were* not agreed," "A *number are* determined to go."

When one of two or more subjects connected by *and* is of the first person, the verb is in the first person; when one is of the second person and none is of the first, the verb is in the second, as: —

"He and I[3] *shall* (not *will*) suffer for this"; "How *dost thou* and thy *master* agree?"

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[1] When a singular and a plural subject are used, the plural generally stands next to the verb, however.

[2] Sometimes a collective noun is preceded by a verb in the singular and followed by one in the plural; as, "Blessed *is* the people that *know* the joyful sound"; "There *is* a generation that *are* pure in *their* own eyes."

We may say, "Three times four *is* twelve," because the expression = "Four (thought of as a whole) taken three times is twelve." But it is more common, it is thought, to use *are*.

"Three times four *are* twelve = three repetitions of four *are* twelve." — *Century Dictionary*.

[3] Except when confessing his fault, it is customary for the speaker who is using pronouns of the three persons to place first the pronoun of the second person, to place

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number, gender, and person, as: —

"*I who am* here"; "*Thou who writest*"; "*He that speaks* on *his* own account, and *she who talks* for *herself*"; "*They who plead* for *themselves.*"

THE AUXILIARIES — MEANINGS, ENDINGS, USES

Be. — The substantive verb *be* has three **roots** — (1) **bhu** (Latin **fu**-*i*, Greek **phu**-*o*) seen in *be* and *been*, and meaning to 'grow'; (2) **as** (Latin **s**-*um*, Greek **es**-*mi*) seen in *am*, *art*, *is*, and *are*, and meaning to 'sit' or to 'breathe' — the **s** syncopated in *am*, and changed by Werner's law to **r** in *art* and *are*, and the **a** appearing as **i** in *is*; and (3) **was** or **wes**, seen in *was*, *wast*, *were*, and *wert*, and meaning to 'dwell' — the **s** changed to **r** in *were* and *wert*.

The concrete **meanings** of these roots have all faded out of the verb; it now signifies simple existence — is oftenest merely a **copula**.

The personal **ending -m** in *a*-**m** — the only **-m** verb-ending in English — is the **m** of the first personal pronoun *me*; the **-t** of *ar*-**t**, *was*-**t**, and *wer*-**t** is the **ð** of ðū, 'thou'; *is* is the root without ending; and the **-e** of *ar*-**e** and *wer*-**e** — the only indicative forms in English that cannot be used in the singular as well as in the plural — is not derived from a

next the pronoun of the third person, and to place last the pronoun referring to himself. He follows the same order when using pronouns of but two different persons; as, "*You* and *he* and *I*, *you* and *he*, *you* and *I*, *he* and *I*, are invited."

personal pronoun, but is a vowel which originally connected the stem to a personal pronoun which has dropped.

The auxiliary *be*[1] in its various forms enters alone or along with other auxiliaries, into combination with the infinitive and with the participles of verbs to aid in conjugation.

Do. — Instead of the simple forms of a verb in the present and past tenses indefinite, *do*, *do*-**st**, *do*-**es**, and the reduplicated *di*-**d** and *di*-**d**-**st** are used with the present infinitive of the verb in (1) negative[2] and (2) interrogative[2] sentences; and (3) to express emphasis.[2] The form *do* is used also (4) with the imperative[2] of a verb.

Have. — The auxiliary *have*, *ha*(*ve*)-**st**, *ha*(*ve*)-**s**, *ha*(*ve*)-**th**, *ha*(*ve*)-**d**, has lost its old concrete meaning of possession —

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[1] *Be* is also an independent verb. Its full conjugation may be seen in chapter XXII.

[2] As in (1) "I *do* not *look* for him yet"; (2) "What *did* you *see?*" (3) "You say he *does* not *resemble* his father but I say he *does*"; (4) "*Do sit* down and *listen*.

Mason tells us that *do* is not thus used (1) when the subject is an interrogative pronoun, or (2) when the subject, or an adjective modifying it, is qualified by an interrogative word. We say, "*Who* or *what men* or *how many men voted?*" (not *did vote*).

Still, in poetry, we find such questions as, "*What wound did* ever *heal* but by degrees?" The negative and emphatic *did* does not come under Mason's rule; as, "Who *did not* vote?" "Who *did* vote?"

Do, independent, is in all its forms (1) an ordinary transitive verb meaning to 'perform'; or (2) is used as a convenient substitute for any other verb, as: —

(1) "He *did* his duty as a citizen"; (2) "His face shines as *does* (=*shines*) the moon"; "Proceeding, as it *does* (=*proceeds*) from the brain, the spinal marrow extends downward through the back-bone."

Gan, preterit of O.E. *-ginnan*, is used in Middle English with the force of *did* emphatic, as in

"She kiste her sone, and after *gan* it blesse." — *Chaucer*.

a meaning it retains as an independent, or notional, verb. In its early uses as an auxiliary with the past participle of transitive verbs, it kept its meaning of possession, the participle agreeing in gender, number, and case with the object complement of *have*.[1]

The idea of possession gradually fading out of *have*, the verb became a mere formative element; and the participle, ceasing to agree with the object, blended with *have* in a compound tense followed by the object. When this stage was reached, *have* was ready for use with the participles of intransitives. Its use with them has increased, until now it has almost ousted *be* from such combinations[2] and taken its place.

The auxiliary *have*, in its various forms, enters alone or along with other auxiliaries, into combination with the

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[1] As in, "Hie *hi*-**ne** *ofslæg*-**en**-**ne** *hæf*-**d**-**on**"; "Hē *hæf*-**d**-**e** ðā *wīs*-**an** *onfang*-**en**-**e**"—in which the -**ne** and -**e** show that in number, gender, and case, *ofslægen*-**ne**, 'slain,' and *onfangen*-**e**, 'taken hold of,' agree with *hi*-**ne**, 'him,' and *wīs*-**an**, 'matter'—object complements of *hæf*-**don**, *hæf*-**de**, 'had.'

Have is an independent verb also. Its conjugation is given in chapter XXII.

[2] The original O.E. present perfect, and past perfect auxiliaries used with transitive verbs were forms of *habban*, 'have'; those used with intransitives were forms of *bēon*, 'be.' *Habban* encroached upon *bēon;* we have extended the encroachment of *have* upon *be*. March allows that "*have* with an intransitive does not bear analysis," but says, "We do not want two tense signs for the same tense." *Be*, which Whitney thinks "would theoretically be more correct" with intransitives, has yielded; and *have* is the common auxiliary of these two tenses.

But **be** is **still** sometimes **used** in these tenses with **intransitive verbs of motion, rest, growth**, and **disappearance**, as in "The time *is gone* by"; "When they *were come* out of the city"; "The world *is grown* so bad"; "What *is become* of him?" "The mountains *are vanished*"; "The heathen *are perished*."

participles of the verbs whose conjugation it is aiding—as may be seen in chapter XXII.

Must.—The auxiliary *must*, the Mn.E. of the O.E. *mōste* from *mōtan*, has but one form. It is always indicative, and denotes (1) obligation[1] and (2) certainty.[1]

It is used with the present infinitive[1] of a verb to form its present tense indefinite; and with *have* and the past participle[1] of a verb to form its present perfect complete.

Shall and Will.—*Shall*, *shal*-t is the O.E. *sc(e)al*, from *sculan*; and *will*,[2] *wil*-t is from O.E. *willan*. To form the O.E. future of any verb these auxiliaries were used with its present infinitive. Neither of these, etymologically, expressed futurity. *Sculan*[3] indicated debt, duty; *willan*,[3]

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[1] As in (1) "We *must obey*"; (2) "He *must have seen* you."

"So *mote* it be," the old optative, is a familiar wish.

[2] Our *won't*, 'will not,' is a contraction of an old present form *wol* and *not*.

Willy-nilly = 'will he, nill he' = 'whether he will or whether he nill' (will not). The negative **ne** combines with many adverbs, pronouns, and interjections as in *n-ever*, *n-aught*, *n-either*, *n-ay*, *n-or*, etc.; and in O.E. and later, it united with verbs, as in *nam*, *nis*, *nas*, *nill*, etc.

[3] Why, in the absence of a real synthetic future tense, were not auxiliary verbs chosen that signified futurity? Marsh ventures this reply: "To our rude ancestors . . . the present was full of stern necessities; the past, of hard and painfully impressed realities. The future was too doubtful to justify the employment of words implying prediction or even hope; and they appropriated to it forms indicative of a present purpose, determination, or duty, not of prophecy or of expectation." March says, "All times were at first expressed by the same verb form. In the next period, a second form was used for completed, or past, action, leaving the present and future the first form. Then in O.E., *sculan* and *willan* came in to express various kinds of future action, and lastly became the common form for simple futures in Mn.E."

wish, purpose, or determination. In Mn.E., *shall* and *will* are used to express future action[1] or being, but with much of their original signification still clinging to them.

Shall and Will in the Future. — In the three persons of the future, *shall* and *will* alternate.[2] Ordinarily used as in

"I *shall* walk"; "You *will* walk"; "He *will* walk,"

shall and *will* foretell, and are simple future auxiliaries. But in

"I *will* walk"; "You *shall* walk"; "He *shall* walk,"

shall and *will* express the determination of the speaker, and cannot properly be regarded simply as future auxiliaries.[3]

Arbitrary as the distinction between these auxiliaries in

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[1] O. F. Emerson, in *History of the English Language*, says, "During the Middle English period, the future came to be regularly expressed by the auxiliary *shall*. Toward the close of the same period, *will* was also used, along with *shall*, in the first person, to express a promise or a threat. In the modern period, *will* . . . came to be used in the second and third persons to express futurity."

[2] "The present distinction between *shall* and *will* in the different persons is not established in O.E., nor in Scottish or Irish. In the simple future *will* has been encroaching upon *shall* in America; and has quite taken its place in the colloquial speech of all but New Englanders, and their descendants." — *F. A. March.*

This distinction between *shall* and *will* in the three persons Marsh condemns as "a verbal quibble, serving no end but to embarrass"; and he predicts its speedy disappearance — a prediction not yet fulfilled.

Still, in subordinate clauses introduced by *as*, *if*, *though*, *till*, *unless*, *when*, etc., or by a relative pronoun, the distinction is not rigidly observed. Here *shall* may be used in the three persons; as, "If you or I or any one *shall break* a moral law, punishment will follow"; "A free people is always prepared for whatever *shall occur*"; "If a man *shall steal* an ox, he shall restore him five oxen."

[3] Mason says even, "'Thou shalt not steal' involves no prediction; it asserts a present obligation. Consequently, in this sentence we have not a future tense."

the three persons may seem, the change from *shall* in the first person future to *will* in the second and in the third has a reason. It is the reason that accounts for the substitution of the plural *you* for the singular *thou* in addressing one — **courtesy.**

Will yet savors far too strongly of self-determination for the speaker's use in foretelling what he is to do; hence he uses *shall*, which still plainly implies external influence, compulsion of some kind, duty. But that which unfits *will* and fits *shall* for the speaker's need in predicting his own actions, fits *will* and unfits *shall* for forecasting the actions of another — the person spoken to or spoken of.

Modesty leads the speaker to place himself under the determination of some power outside of himself; courtesy leads him to leave others to their own determination.[1]

But such modesty and courtesy are laid aside when the speaker has to assert firm purpose respecting self, and necessity or promise respecting others. Here he resorts to the self-purposeful *will* in the first person and the compulsory *shall* in the second and third, as: —

"I *will* not pay twenty-one shillings and sixpence, ship money"; "Thou *shalt* not be as the hypocrites are"; "He *shall* be paid."

The auxiliary used in a question is that which, as indicating prediction, purpose, or necessity, is expected in the answer, as: —

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[1] One may courteously avoid even the proper exercise of authority, and, assuming his servant's readiness to obey, may say, "You *will* see that I am called."

"*Shall* you pay?" "I *shall*"; "*Will*[1] it rain?" "It *will*[1]"; "*Shall* he stay?" "He *shall*"; "*Will* you go?" "I *will*."

Shall and *will* are always in the indicative. Their use with the present infinitive and the participles of other verbs in the future and future perfect tenses may be seen in chapter XXII.

Should and Would. — *Shoul*-**d**, *shoul*-**d-est**, or *shoul*-**d-st**, is the preterit *sceol*-**de** — the O.E. **sc** appearing here as elsewhere as **sh**; and *woul*-**d**, *woul*-**d-est**, or *woul*-**d-st**, is the preterit *wol*-**de**. Their use in the conjugation of other verbs may be seen in chapter XXII.

Should[2] and *would* are in the indicative when they aid in asserting, as facts, **obligation** and **intention**; they are in

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[1] In speaking, as here, of something incapable of volition, there seems to be no trace of the original meaning of *will*, unless we regard the question and answer as containing a species of personification.

[2] *Should* and *would*, though preterit in form, do not always express the act as past. In "He said he *should* soon *go*," "He thought he *would go*," *should* and *would* assert action **future** with respect to that of *said* and *thought*. In "If I *should refuse*, he *would be* angry," "Though he *should be* present, it *would do* no good," the subjunctive *should* and *would* express mere **conception without reference to past time**. In (1) "I *should be* unwilling to attempt that," and (2) "You *should stand* up for your rights," *should* denotes (1) **self-distrust**, and (2) **obligation, without reference to past time**.

Would is often used to **soften** the **assertion**, as in "It *would be* well to ask," "It *would seem* so."

"The auxiliaries *shall*, *should*, *will*, and *would* commonly express some imperative or optative modification of the principal action — such as is expressed in many languages by modes. The nice distinctions of obligation, constraint, command, intention, permission, and promise, varying as the clause is indicative, subjunctive, interrogative, responsive, conditional, and the like, are among the most difficult objects of study in language, and are generally left to special treatises." — *F. A. March.*

the subjunctive when they aid in asserting these as mere conceptions.

The principle that guides in the use of *shall* and *will* in the different persons guides in the use of *should* and *would* in them. Just as we say

He thinks that *I shall* be lonely and that *he will* visit me,"

so we say

"He thought that *I should* be lonely and that *he would* visit me."

May and Might. — *May*, *may*-**est**, or *may*-**st** is the O.E. *mœg* — the **g** becoming **y**; — and *migh*-**t**, *might*-**t-est**, or *might*-**t-st**, is its preterit *mih*-**te** — the **h** becoming **gh**.

They are used to express[1] (1) **permission**, (2) **possibility** or **liability**, and (3) **wish** (this only in the subjunctive). *May* and *might* are in the indicative when they aid in asserting something as a fact: they are in the subjunctive when they aid in asserting it as a mere conception.

With what forms and in what tenses of the verb which it is aiding to conjugate, *may* is found, is seen in chapter XXII. *Might* is used in the tenses where *should* and *would* are employed.

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[1] As in (1) "You *may go*," "You *might hand* me that"; (2) "We *may die* to-night," "You *might slip* on the ice"; (3) "*May* you *be* happy," "Oh! that I *might fly* away."

Note the delicate shades of meaning in auxiliaries!

Can and Could. — *Can*,[1] *can*-**st** was once an independent verb meaning[2] to 'know,' and had a past participle *cūð*,[3] 'known.' It now asserts **ability** or **power**. Its preterit *coul*-**d** has dropped the **n** of *can*, and through the influence of *should* and *would* has added an **l** in spelling but not in sound.

Can is used in the indicative, and in tenses where the indicative *mæy* is found. *Could* is indicative when it aids in asserting something as a fact; it is subjunctive when it aids in asserting it as a mere conception. *Could* is found in the tenses where *should* and *would* are used.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Number and Person. Exceptions to the Rule for Number. Auxiliaries — Roots, Meanings, Endings, Uses. Encroachments of *Have* upon *Be*. *Shall* and *Will* in the Future.

Questions. — Definition of number and person? Rule? The one distinguishing number and person ending of verbs in the common style? The endings in the solemn style? When is rule for the agreement of verbs almost invariable? When *need* and *dare* used instead of *needs* and *dares?* When do plural nouns take verbs in the singular? What seeming exception to the rule is the source of many mistakes? What exceptions to the rule that two or more nom-

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[1] *Can*, *may*, *must*, *ought*, *shall*, and *will* were originally past forms; hence there is no -s in the present indicative third singular.

[2] This meaning is still seen in *con* and *cunning*, and in the cognate *ken*.

[3] Still seen in *uncouth*, 'unknown,' and hence 'awkward,' 'boorish.'

inatives in the singular, connected by *and*, require a plural verb, are given? What seeming exceptions to the rule, when these obvious ellipses are given? A collective noun, singular in form, has its verb in the singular, when? In the plural, when? In what person is the verb when one of its subjects connected by *and* is of the first person? When one is of the second person and there is none of the first? A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in what? Which is common, "Three times four *is* twelve" or "three times four *are* twelve"? The order of pronouns in a sentence? The roots, and the meanings of the roots, of *be*? Its endings, what? Its meaning now, what? Is *be* ever an independent verb? The functions of *do* as auxiliary? Of *do*, independent? *Gan*, once used how? What has the auxiliary *have* lost? With what did the past participle used with *have* once agree? How came it to unite, as now, with *have* to form compound tenses? Upon what verb has *have* encroached? What do March and Whitney say of *have* and *be*? *Be* still used with intransitive verbs denoting what? *Must* denotes what? *Shall* and *will* from verbs originally meaning what? Neither implied what? What is Marsh's explanation of the fact that our O.E. ancestors did not choose auxiliaries implying futurity? What is March's note? In simple prediction, what is the use of *shall* and *will* in the three persons? Has the present distinction between them in these persons always existed? What is Marsh's prophecy respecting this distinction? In what clauses is the distinction ignored? What is the use of *shall* and *will* in the three persons when expressing the determination of the speaker? What has given rise to the distinction between *shall* and *will* in these persons? What parallel elsewhere? What unfits *will* for use in the first person when the speaker is foretelling? What fits *shall* for this office? What fits *will* and unfits *shall* for this office in the second and third persons? What is laid aside when the speaker has to assert firm purpose respecting himself, and promise or necessity respecting others? How then does he use *shall* and *will*? How are these auxiliaries used in questions? How is the seeming exception to the use of *will* in "*Will* it rain?" ac-

counted for? *Shall* and *will* always in what mode? *Should* and *would* express what? When in the indicative? When in the subjunctive? Though preterit in form, do *should* and *would* always express the action as past? *Would* often used for what? *May* and *might* express what? When indicative? When subjunctive? *Can* once meant what? The original meaning of *can* still seen in what words? What consonant has *could* dropped? Both mean what? Are used how? What verbs have no -s in the third singular present?

Exercises. — Give sentences in which one is liable to mistake nouns plural in form only for real plurals. Illustrate the exceptions to the rule requiring the plural with two or more singular subjects connected by *and*. Give sentences illustrating the singular verb with a collective noun singular in form; the plural verb. Illustrate the several uses of *do*, auxiliary; of *do*, independent. Illustrate the uses of *be* in compound tenses; of *shall* and *will* in simple prediction; of *shall* and *will* in expressing determination; of *should* and *would* when not expressing past time.

CHAPTER XX

THE VERB — (*Continued*)

VERBS CLASSIFIED WITH RESPECT TO FORM

With respect to **meaning,** verbs have been classed **as transitive** and **intransitive.** With respect to **form,** we classify them as **strong** and **weak.**

Strong Verbs. — The verbs that we call *strong* owe their vowel-change, seen in the past tense, to the primitive Indo-European method of expressing completed action — that of **doubling the stem syllable.** In each verb, the two syllables — the reduplicating and the reduplicated — contracted in O.E. into one syllable, in which the vowel element of the original syllable was changed.

Few of the strong verbs now in English retain this reduplication; but most of them, in passing from the present time to the past, underwent a **vowel-change** produced by reduplication; and this vowel-change became significant of past time.

VOWEL-CHANGES IN O.E. STRONG VERBS ILLUSTRATED

In the columns below we exhibit the vowel-changes which the strong O.E. verbs that survive with us suffered in O.E.

—changes produced by **reduplication**, or by what may be called **vowel-variation**—changes which we have said came to mark past time.

PRES. INF.	PAST TENSE—SING. AND PLU.	PAST PART.
beātan, 'beat,'	beōt and beōton,	beāten.
biddan, 'bid,'	bæd and bǣdon,	beden.
blōwan, 'blow,'	bleōw and bleōwon,	blowen.
crāwan, 'crow,'	creōw, creōwon,	crāwen.
cuman, 'come,'	cōm and cōmon,	cumen.
drincan, 'drink,	dranc and druncon,	druncen.
etan, 'eat,'	æt and ǣton,	eten.
feallan, 'fall,'	feōll and feōllon,	feallen.
feohtan, 'fight,'	feaht and fuhton,	fohten.
freōsan, 'freeze,'	freās and fruron,	froren.
giefan, 'give,'	geaf and geāfon,	giefen.
hōn, 'hang,'	hēng and hēngon,	hangen.
rīdan, 'ride,'	rād and ridon,	riden.
sēon, 'see,'	seah and sāwon,	sawen.
slēan, 'slay,'	slōh and slōgon,	slagen.
stelan, 'steal,'	stæl and stǣlon,	stolen.
swerian, 'swear,'	swōr and swōron,	sworen.
wacan, 'wake,'	wōc and wōcon,	wacen.

The strong verbs now in English exhibit many vowel-changes in passing from what is now the present form to the preterit. As is seen in the column of strong verbs below, these changes are of **a** to **e**, to **o**, to **u**, and to **oo**; of **ay** to **ew**; of **e** to **o**; of **ea** to **a** and to **o**; of **ee** to **aw** and to **o**; of **i** to **a**, to **o**, to **ou**, to **u**; of **ie** to **ay**; of **o** to **a** and to **e**; of **oo** to **o**; of **u** to **a**; and of **y** to **ew**. As above, vowel-changes in the participles sometimes attend.

Weak Verbs.[1]—The vowel-changes resulting from reduplication were so various and confusing that another method of indicating what is now the past tense was devised—the addition of a syllable[2] to the stem of the present. This furnished a fixed model to which all new verbs have conformed, and gave us the class of verbs called *weak*—a class including so large a majority[3] of the verbs now in

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[1] "*Strong* and *weak* were first applied by Grimm on the theory that verbs of the one conjugation expressed the idea of past time by a mere modification of their own resources . . . while those of the other had to call in the help of an additional syllable to achieve the same result."—*Professor Lounsbury.*

"*Strong* and *Weak* in conjugation mean that one class held strongly to the old forms, the other weakened to a new form."—*F. A. March.*

Old and *New*, used to characterize the two classes, explain themselves.

[2] This syllable is generally believed to be a remnant of our *did*—the reduplicated form of *do.*

Professor Whitney, *Language and the Study of Language*, says, "*We tamed* is in Mœso-Gothic [the oldest member of the Teutonic branch of our linguistic family] *tamidēdum*, which means not less evidently *tame-did-we* than the Anglo-Saxon *sōthlīce*, 'soothly,' 'truly,' means 'in a sooth-like (truth-like) way.' *I loved* is, then, originally *I love did*, that is, *I did love.*"

Of the full form -ed in use, the e is the connecting vowel to which the O.E. connective o or ia was reduced, or is an e otherwise brought in; and the d is what, it is thought, remains of the *did.*

[3] In O.E. there were about 300 simple strong verbs—many of which compounded with prefixes. In capacity for compounding, O.E. strong verbs surpassed those in Mn.E. Lounsbury says of *standan* that it combined with more than a dozen prefixes; our *stand* unites with only two—*with* and *under.*

Many of these O.E. strong verbs perished during the centuries succeeding the Norman Conquest and never entered Mn.E.; and many have since gone over to the weak class. Of the 300 in O.E. not 100 are left.

The desertion from the strong to the weak was checked by the appearance of a native literature in the second half of the fourteenth century—the time of Wyclif and Langland and Chaucer—and three centuries ago it stopped.

Lounsbury says, "Since the reign of Queen Elizabeth, 1558–1603, our speech has not lost a single strong verb. What the language then had it has ever since retained.

English that it is popularly called **regular,**[1] in distinction from the strong verbs called **irregular.**[1]

Another Distinction between the Two Classes of Verbs. — That strong verbs indicate past time by **vowel-change,** and weak verbs by **adding a syllable,** is the most vital distinction between the two classes but not the only one — the past participle of strong verbs ends in **-en**; that of weak verbs, in **-ed.**[2]

The **Principal Parts** of a verb — those parts from which all the others are derived — are the **present indicative** or **infinitive,** the **past indicative,** and the **past participle.**

In the principal parts of the Mn.E. strong verbs below are seen (1) the **vowel-change** by which the past tense is indicated, (2) the **other changes** of the verb **stem,** and (3) the **participle ending,** changed or unchanged.

In fact, the present disposition of the language is to cling firmly to the strong verbs it already possesses . . . and even to extend their number."

And he instances verbs that wholly or in part have gone over from the weak to the strong — *shake, shine, strive, dig,* etc.

But new verbs, from whatever source they come, are weak. So that, while the strong are not deserting to the weak, the weak are gaining in number.

[1] In a work following the development of the parts of speech from O.E. down, it seems best to employ the terms **strong** and **weak,** now used in the historical and scientific treatment of the English verb; especially as, in speaking of those weak verbs that conform to the type, and of those that do not, we shall need the words **regular** and **irregular.**

[2] The losses that **-en** and **-ed** sustained and the resulting irregularities of the participles will be given — those of **-en** at the end of this list of strong verbs, and those of **-ed** at the end of the irregular weak verbs.

This **-ed** is not the **-ed** of the past tense. The **e** is a connecting vowel, but the **d** is the **t** of a primitive suffix **-ta,** — as in Latin past participle *ama-tus* — from *amare,* to 'love' — transformed.

LIST OF STRONG VERBS IN MODERN ENGLISH

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PART.
(a)bide,[1]	abode,	abode.	draw,	drew,	drawn.
(for)bear,	bore, bare,*	borne, born.[2]	drink,	drank, drunk,*	drunk.
beat,	beat,	beaten.	drive,	drove,	driven.
(be)gin,[3]	began, begun,*	begun.	eat,	ate,	eaten.
			(be)fall,	fell,	fallen.
(for)bid,	bade, bid,	bidden, bid.	fight,	fought,	fought.
bind,	bound,	bound.	find,	found,	found.
bite,	bit,	bitten.	fling,	flung,	flung.
blow,	blew,	blown.	fly,	flew,	flown.
			freeze,	froze,	frozen.
blow, 'blossom'	blew,	blown.	be, for get,	got,	got, gotten.[4]
break,	broke, brake,*	broken.	(for)give,	gave,	given.
chide,	chid,	chidden, chid.	(for)sake,[3]	forsook,	forsaken.
			grind,	ground,	ground.
choose,	chose,	chosen.	grow,	grew,	grown.
cling,	clung,	clung.	hang,	hung, *hanged*,[5]	hung, *hanged.*
(be)come,	came,	come.			
dig,	dug, *digged*,*	dug, *digged.**	heave,	hove, *heaved*,	hove, *heaved.*

* Forms starred are now rare — archaic, poetic, or dialectic. The second forms of preterits or participles are judged to be less common than the first.

[1] *Bide* in the compound is a regular weak now; it was strong in the O.E.

[2] *Born* is the participle of *bear*, to 'bring forth.' The participle of *forbear*, like that of *bear*, to 'carry,' ends in e.

[3] *Begin* and *forsake* are the only compounds in the list without simple forms in English.

[4] Used in *begotten* and *forgotten*; *got* is in England the more common participle of *get*; *gotten* is more common in America, and is sometimes ignorantly called an Americanism.

[5] *Hanged* and all italicized forms are those of regular weak verbs. *Hang*, *hanged* = put to death by 'hanging.'

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PART.
hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
(be)hold,	held,	held, holden.*
know,	knew,	known.
lie, 'recline'	lay,	lain.
reeve,	rove,	rove.
ride,	rode,	ridden.
ring,	rang,	rung.
(a)rise,	rose,	risen.
run,	ran,	run.
(fore)see,	saw,	seen.
seethe,	*seethed*, sod,*	sodden, *seethed*.
shake,	shook,	shaken.
shear,	*sheared*, shore,*	shorn, *sheared*.
shine,	shone,	shone.
shoot,	shot,	shot.
shrink,	shrank, shrunk,*	shrunk, shrunken.
shrive,	*shrived*, shrove,	*shrived*, shriven.
sing,	sang, sung,*	sung.
sink,	sank,	sunk.
sit,	sat,	sat.
slay,	slew,	slain.
slide,	slid,	slidden, slid.
sling,	slung,	slung.
slink,	slunk,	slunk.
smite,	smote,	smitten.
(be)speak,	spoke, spake,*	spoken.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PART.
spin,	spun,	spun.
spring,	sprang, sprung,*	sprung.
under, with stand,	stood,	stood.
stave,	stove, *staved*,	stove, *staved*.
steal,	stole,	stolen.
stick,	stuck,	stuck.
sting,	stung,	stung.
stink,	stank, stunk,*	stunk.
stride,	strode,	stridden.
strike,	struck,	struck, stricken.
string,	strung,	strung.
strive,	strove,	striven.
(for)swear,	swore,	sworn.
swim,	swam, swum,*	swum.
swing,	swung,	swung.
mis, under take,	took,	taken.
tear,	tore,	torn.
thrive,	throve, *thrived*,	thriven, *thrived*.
throw,	threw,	thrown.
tread,	trod (e),	trodden.
(a)wake,	*waked*, woke,	*waked*, woke.
wear,	wore,	worn.
weave,	wove,	woven.
win,	won,	won.
wind,	wound,	wound.
wring,	wrung,	wrung.
write,	wrote,	written.

The Preterit, or Past Stems, of the Strong Verbs. — (1) For a summary of the **vowel-changes** in the preterit illustrated above, see p. 205; (2) in *beat, bit, chid, hid,* etc., there is no **vowel-change** in the stem; (3) in *stood* the **n** of the present *stand* is forced out; (4) in *struck* there is a **c** not found in *strike*; and (5) in *sang* and *sung, sprang* and *sprung, swam* and *swum,* we have double forms — one from each number in the O.E.

The Participle Stem. — (1) Sometimes this is like the present stem, as in *driven, fallen, run,* and *seen;* (2) sometimes, like the past, as in *found, held, spoken,* and *stuck;* and (3) sometimes different from either, as in *flown* and *sunk.*

The Participle Ending. — (1) Sometimes the full, regular syllable **-en** is **used,** as in *beaten, ridden, shrunken,* and *smitten* — doubling the consonant or not, according to Rule III, and exceptions, p. 143; (2) sometimes the **e** of **-en** is **dropped,** as in *known, slain,* and *torn;* (3) sometimes this **e** is **dropped,** and an **e added** to the **n,** as in *borne;* (4) sometimes the **-en** is **dropped,** as in *fought, bound, stuck,* and *strung;* and (5) sometimes the **-en** is **retained** in **one** form and **dropped** in **another,** as in *hidden* and *hid, gotten* and *got, shrunken* and *shrunk.*

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Strong Verbs — Vowel Changes in O.E. Weak Verbs. Distinctions. List of Strong Verbs in Mn.E. — their Preterit Stem, and Participle Stems and Endings.

Questions. — Verbs are classed as transitive and intransitive with regard to what? As strong and weak? Some strong verbs owe their vowel-change in passing from the present to the past tense, to what? Most strong verbs underwent what? In the O.E. list of strong verbs given, these vowel-changes are from what to what? In the Mn.E. strong verbs, these changes are from what to what? Why are the two lists of verbs called strong and weak? Which is the older class? Weak verbs form their preterit how? The added syllable, **-ed** believed to be what? What is the **e** of that syllable, and what the **d**? How many strong verbs in O.E.? How many in Mn.E.? Account for the difference. For what are the terms *regular* and *irregular* reserved? Any losses of strong verbs since 1600? How are weak verbs gaining in number? What, besides the vowel-change in strong verbs and the added **-ed** in weak, is a distinction between the two classes? The participle ending **-ed** of weak verbs, what? The principal parts of a verb, what? What in the list of Mn.E. strong verbs is shown? The difference between *born* and *borne?* What is said of *begin* and *forsake?* When two forms of the verb in the past tense, or of participles, are given in the list, which is the more common? Forms in italics are what? The regular participle of *get* is what? The more common now in England is what? *Hanged* means what? In what strong verbs is there no vowel-change seen now in the preterit? What changes in the preterit stem are noted? The participle stem is sometimes like what? At other times is like what? Examples of difference from both? What is the full participle ending of strong verbs? In what ways may this full ending be affected?

Exercises. — Pick out of the list verbs that illustrate all the vowel-changes spoken of p. 205. Pick out the verbs whose participle stem is like the present; like the past; like neither. Pick out the verbs whose participle endings are changed in any way from **-en.** Give the principal parts of the remaining verbs.

CHAPTER XXI

THE VERB — (*Continued*)

Weak Verbs. — Regular. — The regular weak verbs form their past tense by adding **-ed**[1] to the present. They add also an **-ed** to form the past participle — the **e** final of the present stem and of the participle, if either stem ends in **e**, furnishing the **e** of the **-ed**.

Some of the verbs, like *cleave*, 'adhere,' *climb*, *crow*, and *help*, were strong verbs once but have gone over to the weak, though an occasional strong preterit, *clave*, *clomb*, *crew*, or *holp* is still found in poetry.

Some of these verbs, like (*en*)*grave*, *hew*, *lade*, *mow*, *rive*, *shape*, *shave*, *sow*, *swell*, and *wax*, were strong verbs once but have gone over to the weak, though their strong participles, *graven*, *hewn*, *laden*, *mown*, *riven*, *shapen*, *shaven*, *sown*, *swollen*, and *waxen* are used along with the weak.

Others of these verbs, like *saw*, *show*, and *strew* or *strow*, were never strong but have taken on strong participles, as *sawn*, *shown*, and *strewn* or *strown*, sometimes used instead of the weak.

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[1] The added **-ed** of the regular weak verb is pronounced (1) after **t** and **d** as a distinct syllable — as in *greeted*, *hated*, *heated*, *lifted*, *wended*; (2) after a sonant as **d** — as in *dazed*, *drowned*, *loved*, *seemed*; and (3) after a surd (except **t**) as **t** — as in *forced*, *fixed*, *kissed*, *looked*, *mixed*, *passed*, *reached*, *stretched*, *thanked*, *tossed*.

Still, as these and all such verbs are prevailingly **weak** and regular, we class them so and pass the whole list by without further comment.

Weak Verbs — Irregular. — In the principal parts of the irregular weak verbs below are seen the **changes** undergone (1) by the **preterit** and **participle stems**; (2) by the added **-ed** of the **preterit**; and (3) by the added **-ed** of the **participle**.

LIST OF THE IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS IN ENGLISH

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PART.	PRESENT	PAST	PAST PART.
bend,	bent, *bended*,[1]	bent, *bended*.	burn,	burnt, *burned*,	burnt, *burned*.
(be)reave,[2]	bereft,	bereft.	burst,	burst,	burst.
(be)seech,[3]	besought,	besought.	buy,	bought,	bought.
bet,	bet, *betted*,	bet, *betted*.	can,[4]	could.	——
bleed,	bled,	bled.	cast,	cast,	cast.
blend,	*blended*, blent,	*blended*, blent.	catch,	caught,	caught.
bless,	*blessed*, blest,	*blessed*, blest.	cleave, 'split'	cleft, clove, clave,*	cleft, cloven, *cleaved*.
breed,	bred,	bred.	clothe,	*clothed*, clad,[5]	*clothed*, clad.
bring,	brought,	brought.	cost,	cost,	cost.
build,	built, *builded*,	built, *builded*.	creep,	crept,	crept.
			curse,	*cursed*, curst,	*cursed*, curst.

* Forms starred are rare — archaic, poetic, or dialectic.

[1] Forms in italics are regular; they precede the Roman when thought to be more common. Verbs in both italics and Roman are redundant.

[2] The simple verb *reave* is rare.

[3] The obsolete *seech* is from the Southern dialect; *seek* is from the Northern.

[4] *Can*, *may*, *must*, *ought*, *shall*, and *will* are defective — lacking some parts.

[5] *Clad*, O.E. *clæðan*, *clæðde*; whence *cladde*, *clad*. *Clothe* is from *clāðian*.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PART.
cut,	cut,	cut.
dare,[1]	durst, *dared*,	—— *dared*.
deal,	dealt,	dealt.
dip,	*dipped*, dipt,	*dipped*, dipt.
do,	did,	done.
dream,	dreamt, *dreamed*,	dreamt, *dreamed*.
dress,	*dressed*, drest,	*dressed*, drest.
dwell,	dwelt, *dwelled*,	dwelt, *dwelled*.
feed,	fed,	fed.
feel,	felt,	felt.
flee,	fled,	fled.
gild,	*gilded*, gilt,	*gilded*, gilt.
gird,	*girded*, girt,	*girded*, girt.
have,[2]	had,	had.
hear,	heard,	heard.
hit,	hit,	hit.
hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
keep,	kept,	kept.
kneel,	knelt, *kneeled*,	knelt, *kneeled*.
knit,	knit, *knitted*,	knit, *knitted*.
lay,	laid,	laid.
lead,	led,	led.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PART.
lean,	*leaned*, leant,	*leaned*, leant.
leap,	*leaped*, leapt,	*leaped*, leapt.
learn,	*learned*, learnt,	*learned*, learnt.
leave,	left,	left.
lend,	lent,	lent.
light,[3]	*lighted*, lit,	*lighted*, lit.
lose,	lost,	lost.
make,	made,	made.
may,	might.	——
mean,	meant,	meant.
meet,	met,	met.
must.	——	——
ought.	——	——
pay,	paid,	paid
pen, 'confine'	*penned*, pent,	*penned*, pent.
plead,	*pleaded*, plead,	*pleaded*, plead.
put,	put,	put.
quit,	quit, *quitted*,	quit, *quitted*.
read,	read,	read.
rend,	rent,	rent.
rid,	rid,	rid.
say,	said,	said.
seek,	sought,	sought.
sell,	sold,	sold.

[1] These are the parts of *dare*, to 'venture'; *dare*, to 'provoke,' is regular.

[2] (*Be*)*have* is regular.

[3] (*A*)*light* is regular.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PART.
send,	sent,	sent.
(be)set,	set,	set.
shall,	should.	——
shed,	shed,	shed.
shoe,	shod,	shod.
shred,	shred,	shred.
shut,	shut,	shut.
sleep,	slept,	slept.
slit,	slit, *slitted,*	slit, *slitted.*
smell,	*smelled,* smelt,	*smelled,* smelt.
speed,	sped, *speeded,*	sped, *speeded.*
spell,	*spelled,* spelt,	*spelled,* spelt.
spend,	spent,	spent.
spill,	*spilled,* spilt,	*spilled,* spilt.
spit,[1]	spit, spat,*	spit, spitten.*
split,	split,	split.
spoil,	*spoiled,* spoilt,	*spoiled,* spoilt.
spread,	spread,	spread.
stay,[2]	*stayed,* staid,	*stayed,* staid.
sweat,	sweat, *sweated,*	sweat, *sweated.*
sweep,	swept,	swept.
teach,	taught,	taught.
(fore)tell,	told,	told.
think,	thought,	thought.
thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
wet,	wet, *wetted,*	wet.
will,	would.	——
work,	*worked,* wrought,	*worked,* wrought.

Changes in the Preterit[3] Stems of Weak Irregular Verbs. —1. **Vowel variation.** The vowel element of the present may change in the past. But this change is not, as in strong verbs it is, a tense sign.

An **a** and an **o** in the present stem may expand into a diph-

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[1] *Spit*, to 'transfix,' is regular.

[2] *Stay*, the nautical term, is regular.

[3] The changes of preterit and of participle stems are alike, except in *do, did, done.*

Many of the changes of stem and of ending began in O.E. — especially (1) the vowel variation and the consonant changes illustrated in *caught, brought, thought,* etc.; (2) the omission of **e** from both preterit and participle ending; (3) the change of **-d** to **-t**; and (4) the dropping of the consonant after stems ending in **d** or **t**.

thong in the past, as in the preterit *caught* and *wrought;* (2) **a** and **i** may change to a diphthong, as in *could* and *brought;* (3) **a**, **e**, and **o** may change to other single vowels, as in *might*, *durst*, *sold*, and *did;* (4) **ea** may contract to **e**, as in *led;* (5) an **e** of **ee** may drop, as in *fed;* (6) final **y** may change to **i**, with or without change of vowel sound, as in *said* and *paid;* (7) final **e** may drop, as in *shod;* and (8) **uy** may change to **ou**, as in *bought.*

2. **Consonant Change.**[1] — (1) Of the O.E. preterit stem, the **h** (into which the **c** of the present *sēcan*, 'seek', *thencan*, 'think', *tǣcan*, 'teach', and *wyrcan*, 'work', the **ch** of *cachen*, 'catch', the **cg** of *bycgan*, 'buy', and the **ng** of *bringan*, 'bring', were converted) becomes **gh** in our preterits *sought*, *thought*, *taught*, *wrought*, *caught*, *bought*, and *brought;* (2) **v** may change to **f**, as in the preterit *left;* (3) **k** in *make* is dropped from the preterit *made;* (4) final **d**, **ght**, **l**, **s**, and **th** may give way before the past tense sign, as in *bent*, *lit*, *told*, *blest*, and *clad;* and (5) the consonant and the vowel element may change places, as in *wrought.*

Changes in the Tense Sign *-ed* of irregular weak preterits and in the *-ed* of their participles. — (1) The **e** of the **-ed** drops out and only **-d** remains, as in *heard*, *sold*, etc.; (2) **-d** changes to **-t**, as *dwelt*, *sent*, etc.; and (3) the consonant drops after final **d** or **t** of stem — affecting, or not affecting, the pronunciation — as in *read* and in *cast*, *shed*, *put*, etc.

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[1] Many of these changes are due, it is thought, to bad spelling.

Anomalous Verbs

***Be* and *Go*.** — The principal parts of *be* and of *go* are from different stems, and the verbs cannot be classed as strong or as weak. These parts are (1) *be*, *was*, and *been*; (2) *go*, *went*, and *gone*.

The preterit of *be* does not add to the present the past tense sign of a weak verb — namely -ed or some form of it; the preterit of *go* adds it as -t, not, however, to *go* but to the present of the regular weak verb *wend*.

The participles return to the first stem. *Been* is the dialectic participle *bēon*; *gone* has the strong participle ending.

Definitions

Conjugation is the Regular Arrangement of all the Forms of the Verb.

Synopsis is the Regular Arrangement of the Forms of one number and person in all the modes and tenses.

O.E., or Anglo-Saxon, Conjugation of Strong and Weak Verbs in the Present, Active Voice

	Indicative		*Subjunctive*	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1.	(ic) sing-e,	(wē) sing-aþ,	(ic) sing-e,	(wē) sing-en,
2.	(þū) sing-est,	(gē) sing-aþ,	(þū) sing-e,	(gē) sing-en,
3.	(hē) sing-eþ;	(hī) sing-aþ.	(hē) sing-e;	(hī) sing-en.

IMPERATIVE SING.	IMPERATIVE PLU.	INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLE
sing.	sing-aþ.	sing-an.	sing-ende.

CONJUGATION

OF STRONG VERBS, PAST TENSE, ACTIVE		OF WEAK VERBS, PAST TENSE, ACTIVE	
Indicative	*Subjunctive*	*Indicative*	*Subjunctive*
SINGULAR		SINGULAR	
1. (ic) sang,	sung-e,	(ic) er-ed-e 'plough,'	er-ed-e,
2. (ðū) sung-e,	sung-e,	(ðū) er-ed-est,	er-ed-e.
3. (hē) sang;	sung-e;	(hē) er-ed-e;	er-ed-e;
PLURAL		PLURAL	
1. (wē) sung-on,	sung-en,	(wē) er-ed-on,	er-ed-en,
2. (gē) sung-on,	sung-en,	(gē) er-ed-on,	er-ed-en,
3. (hī) sung-on.	sung-en.	(hī) er-ed-on.	er-ed-en.
PARTICIPLE		PARTICIPLE	
sung-en.		er-ed.	

Remarks on the O.E. Conjugation.—1. The ending of the imperative singular of some weak verbs is -e and of some is -a. But if these divergencies from the conjugation of strong verbs are disregarded, the inflections of the strong and the weak verbs in the present are the same.

2. All tenses but the present and the past are compound, and are alike in O.E. and in Mn.E. In studying the O.E. verb-endings, we may restrict ourselves, then, to the present and past tenses.

3. The -ed in the past tense endings of weak verbs excepted, (1) the past indicative plural endings of strong verbs and of weak are alike; (2) the past subjunctive singular endings of strong verbs and of weak are alike; and (3) the past subjunctive plural endings of strong verbs and of weak are alike.

4. The **vowel-change** indicating the past tense of strong verbs is often, as in *singan*, **double**, one form in the first and the third person singular indicative; and the other in the second person singular and the three persons plural indicative, in the subjunctive throughout, and in the participle. These two stems in O.E. account for the two forms of our preterit — as *drank* and *drunk*, *sang* and *sung* — still found in some strong verbs.

5. Most of the O.E. verb-endings have disappeared. (1) The vowels softened to **e**; (2) the **n**[1] final, and then (3) the **e**[1] final, dropped; (4) the **-að** of the plural indicative, softening to **eð**, changed to **-en**, whose letters vanished in the order just given, or to **s** (as in the third singular), which has dropped; and (5) the **ð** of the plural imperative gave way, and then the vowel preceding it.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Weak Verbs — Regular and Irregular. Changes in Stem and Endings. The Anomalous Verbs *Be* and *Go*. O.E. Conjugation of Verbs in Present and Past. Remarks thereon.

Questions. — Regular weak verbs add what to the present to make the past? To make the participle? What changes may this ending undergo? What happens to **e** final of the stem when the past is formed? Some verbs, now weak, use what strong forms? Others, what? Some, never strong, have taken on what? What three things are seen in the principal parts of the irregular weak verbs in the list? What are redundant verbs? What verbs are defective? In these irregular weak verbs, what vowel changes are seen? Seen where? Is this vowel change a tense sign? What consonant changes in the

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[1] (1) In what forms of the verb **n** and **e** are kept, (2) what endings other than those in **n** and **e** are kept, and (3) how these have changed will all be given when the Mn.E. verb is conjugated.

preterits, *sought*, *thought*, *taught*, *wrought*, *caught*, *bought*, and *brought?* In *left*, *made*, *bent*, *lit*, *told*, *blest*, *clad*, and *wrought?* What changes of stem and ending began in O.E.? What changes in the **-ed** of preterits and participles? The principal parts of *be* and *go?* Explain the preterits. Conjugation, what? Synopsis, what? The endings of the O.E. present in the two conjugations, the strong and the weak, differ only in what? Why limit our study of O.E. verb-endings to the present and the past tense? In what three particulars are strong and weak verb-endings in the past alike? Explain our redundant past forms *drank* and *drunk*, *sang* and *sung*. What O.E. verb-endings have disappeared and in what manner and order?

Exercises. — Give the principal parts of the irregular weak verbs. Give the endings — present and past — of the O.E. conjugations.

CHAPTER XXII

THE MODERN ENGLISH CONJUGATION

THE VERB *BE*

Indicative Mode

PRESENT TENSE — SIMPLE FORM

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) a-m,	(We) ar-e,
2. (You) ar-e, (Thou) ar-t,	(You) ar-e,
3. (He) is;	(They) ar-e.

PRESENT TENSE — COMPOUND, OR POTENTIAL, FORM

(In the indicative, *may*, *can*, or *must* helps to assert, as a fact, one's permission, power, or obligation to do — and, in the passive voice, to undergo — what is denoted by the principal verb.)

1. (I) may, can, *or* must be,	(We) may, can, *or* must be,
2. (You) may, can, *or* must be, (Thou) may-st, can-st, *or* must be,	(You) may, can, *or* must be,
3. (He) may, can, *or* must be;	(They) may, can, *or* must be.

PAST TENSE — SIMPLE FORM

1. (I) was,	(We) wer-e,
2. (You) wer-e, (Thou) was-t,	(You) wer-e,
3. (He) was;	(They) wer-e.

Past Tense

Compound, or Potential, Form

(In the indicative, *might, could, would,* or *should* helps to assert, as a fact, the possibility of one's doing, or one's power or intention or obligation to do — and in the passive voice, to undergo — what is denoted by the principal verb).

1. (I) { migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d } be, (We) { migh-t, coul-d woul-d, *or* shoul-d } be,
2. (You) { migh-t, coul-d woul-d, *or* shoul-d } be, (Thou) { migh-t-st, coul-d-st, woul-d-st, *or* shoul-d-st } be, (You) { migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d } be,
3. (He) { migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d } be; (They) { migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d } be.

Future Tense

Simple Prediction

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) shall be,	(We) shall be,
2. { (You) will be, (Thou) wil-t be,	(You) will be,
3. (He) will be;	(They) will be.

Expressing Determination, and Promise also

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) will be,	(We) will be,
2. { (You) shall be, (Thou) shal-t be,	(You) shall be,
3. (He) shall be;	(They) shall be.

Indicative Mode

Present Perfect Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) have been,	(We) have been,
2. { (You) have been, (Thou) ha-st been,	(You) have been,
3. (He) ha-s been ;	(They) have been.

(For the office of the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, and *must* see present tense compound form above).

1. (I) may, can, or must have been ;	(We) may, can, or must have been.
Etc.	Etc.

Past Perfect Tense

1. (I) ha-d been,	(We) ha-d been,
2. { (You) ha-d been, (Thou) ha-d-st been,	(You) ha-d been,
3. (He) ha-d been ;	(They) ha-d been.

(For the office of the auxiliaries *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* see past tense compound form above.)

1. (I) { migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d, } have been ; (We) { migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d, } have been.

Etc. Etc.

Future Perfect—Simple Prediction

1. (I) shall have been,	(We) shall have been,
2. { (You) will have been, (Thou) wil-t have been,	(You) will have been,
3. (He) will have been ;	(They) will have been.

Subjunctive Mode

Present Tense

Simple Form		Compound Form	
SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) be,	(We) be,	1. (I) may be,	(We) may be,
2. { (You) be, (Thou) be,	(You) be,	2. { (You) may be, (Thou) may-st be,	(You) may be,
3. (He) be;	(They) be.	3. (He) may be;	(They) may be.

(For the offices in the subjunctive of *be* or of any other principal verb see pp. 172–175.)

Subjunctive Mode

Past Tense — Simple Form

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) wer-e,	(We) wer-e,
2. { (You) wer-e, (Thou) wer-t,	(You) wer-e,
3. (He) wer-e;	(They) wer-e.

Past Tense — Compound Form

(In (1) simple sentences, *might*, *could*, and *would* help in the subjunctive to express wish. In (2) the principal clause of a sentence containing a clause of time, concession, purpose, or condition, and (3) in such adverb clauses introduced by *till*, *lest*, *though*, *that*, etc., *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* help in the subjunctive to assert, as a conception, the possibility of one's doing, or one's power, intention, or obligation to do — and, in the passive voice, to undergo — what is denoted by the principal verb).

1. (I) { migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d } be; (We) { migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d } be.

Etc. Etc.

Present Perfect Tense

1. (I) have been,	(We) have been,
2. (You) have been, (Thou) have been,	(You) have been,
3. (He) have been ;	(They) have been.

(In the subjunctive, *may* helps in simple sentences (1) to express a wish, and in adverb clauses of condition, purpose, and concession, introduced by *if*, *that*, *lest*, it helps to assert, as a conception, one's permission to do — and in the passive voice, to undergo — what is denoted by the principal verb.)

1. (I) may have been ;	(We) may have been.
Etc.	Etc.

Past Perfect Tense

1. (I) ha-d been,	(We) ha-d been,
2. (You) ha-d been, (Thou) ha-d-st been,	(You) ha-d been,
3. (He) ha-d been ;	(They) ha-d been.

1. (I) migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d have been ;	(We) migh-t, coul-d, woul-d, *or* shoul-d have been.
Etc.	Etc.

Imperative Mode

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
2. Be (you *or* thou) ;	Be (you *or* ye).

Infinitives

PRESENT TENSE	PRESENT PERFECT TENSE
(To) be.	(To) have been.

Participles

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PERFECT
Be-ing.	Been.	Hav-ing been.

Nounal Verbs

Be-ing.	Hav-ing been.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *HAVE*

Indicative Mode

Present Tense		Past Tense	
Simple Form			
SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) have,	(We) have,	(I) ha-d,	(We) ha-d,
2. (You) have, (Thou) ha-st,	(You) have,	(You) ha-d, (Thou) ha-d-st,	(You) ha-d,
3. (He) ha-s;	(They) have.	(He) ha-d;	(They) ha-d.

Subjunctive Mode

Present Tense		Past Tense	
Simple Form			
SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) have,	(We) have,	1. (I) ha-d,	(We) ha-d,
2. (You) have, (Thou) have,	(You) have,	2. (You) ha-d, (Thou) ha-d-st,	(You) ha-d,
3. (He) have;	(They) have.	3. (He) ha-d;	(They) ha-d.

FURTHER CONJUGATION OF *HAVE*

Indicative and Subjunctive Modes

The **Conjugation of *Have*** in the **Present** and the **Past Indicative and Subjunctive compound** form, and in the **remaining tenses** of **both modes simple** and **compound** forms, is effected by substituting the infinitive *have* for *be*, and the participle *had* for *been*, in the corresponding **tenses**, modes, and forms of the **conjugation of *Be***.

OTHER FORMS OF *HAVE*

If *have* be substituted for *be*, *having* for *being*, and *had* for *been*, in the **imperative, infinitives, participles,** and **nounal verbs** of the **Conjugation of *Be***, we have the corresponding forms of ***Have***.

CONJUGATION OF THE STRONG VERB *DRIVE*

Indicative Mode

PRESENT TENSE		PAST TENSE	
SIMPLE FORM			
SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) drive,	(We) drive,	1. (I) drove,	(We) drove,
2. (You) drive, (Thou) driv-est,	(You) drive,	2. (You) drove, (Thou) drov-est,	(You) drove,
3. (He) drive-s;	(They) drive.	3. (He) drove;	(They) drove.

Subjunctive Mode

Present Tense		Past Tense	
Simple Form			
1. (I) drive,	(We) drive,	1. (I) drove,	(We) drove,
2. { (You) drive, (Thou) drive,	(You) drive,	2. { (You) drove, (Thou) drov-est,	(You) drove,
3. (He) drive;	(They) drive.	3. (He drove;	(They) drove.

CONJUGATION OF THE WEAK VERB *WALK*

Indicative Mode

Present Tense

Simple Form

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) walk,	(We) walk,
2. { (You) walk, (Thou) walk-est,	(You) walk,
3. (He) walk-s;	(They) walk.

Past Tense

Simple Form

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) walk-ed,	(We) walk-ed,
2. { (You) walk-ed, (Thou) walk-ed-est,	(You) walk-ed,
3. (He) walk-ed;	(They) walk-ed.

Subjunctive Mode

PRESENT TENSE

SIMPLE FORM

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) walk,	(We) walk,
2. { (You) walk, (Thou) walk,	(You) walk,
3. (He) walk;	(They) walk.

PAST TENSE

SIMPLE FORM

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (I) walk-ed,	(We) walk-ed,
2. { (You) walk-ed, (Thou) walk-ed-est,	(You) walk-ed,
3. (He) walk-ed;	(They) walk-ed.

FURTHER CONJUGATION OF *DRIVE* AND *WALK*

Indicative and Subjunctive Modes

The **Conjugation of *Drive*** or ***Walk*** in the **Present** and the **Past Indicative** and **Subjunctive compound** form, and in the **remaining tenses** of **both modes simple** and **compound** forms, is effected by substituting the infinitive *drive* or *walk* for *be*, and the participle *driv*-**en** or *walk*-**ed** for *been*, in the corresponding tenses, modes, and forms of the **Conjugation of *Be***. That of other verbs is the same.

Imperative Mode

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
2. Drive (you *or* thou);	Drive (you *or* ye).
2. Walk (you *or* thou);	Walk (you *or* ye).

INFINITIVES

PRESENT TENSE	PRESENT PERFECT TENSE
(To) drive.	(To) have driv-en.
(To) walk.	(To) have walk-ed.

PARTICIPLES

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PERFECT
Driv-ing.	Driv-en.	Hav-ing driv-en.
Walk-ing.	Walk-ed.	Hav-ing walk-ed.

NOUNAL VERBS

Driv-ing.	Hav-ing driv-en.
Walk-ing.	Hav-ing walk-ed.

The Verb-endings Now in English. — The -m in *a*-m is a primitive Indo-European ending, and the -e in *ar*-e is Scandinavian. The O.E. terminations are (1) the e in *wer*-e; (2) the -est, -st, or -t of the second person singular, as in *walk*-est, *may*-st, and *shal*-t; (3) the ð[1] of the third singular present

[1] This ending became -s first in the Northern Dialect; it was used there in the plural also, — is found in the plural in Shakespeare, as in "My old *bones aches*"; "His *tears runs* down his beard."

indicative, changed to **-s**, as in *fight*-**s**, changed to **-es**[1] after a guttural, a palatal, a sibilant, an **o**, and a **y** preceded by a consonant, as in *fix*-**es**, *pinch*-**es**, *kiss*-**es**, *do*-**es**, and *cri*-**es**; (4) the **-ed**, **-d**, **-t** of the past tense of weak verbs, and (5) the **-ed**, **-d**, **-t** of the past participle weak, as in *walk*-**ed**, *tol*-**d**, and *leap*-**t**; (6) the **-en**, **-n** of the past participle strong, as in *brok*-**en** and *draw*-**n**; and (7) the **-ende** of the present participle changed to **-ing**, as in *walk*-**ing**.

Some verb-endings are double — the past tense ending **-ed** plus a personal ending — as in *migh*-**t-st**, *lov*-**ed-est**.

THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS WHEN DENOTING CONTINUING ACTION

The conjugation above is that of verbs in the present and the past and the future, **indefinite**;[2] and in the present perfect and the past perfect and the future perfect, **complete**.[2]

Their conjugation, when denoting action **continuing**, is effected by **adding** their **present participle** to the several **forms** of the substantive verb ***Be***.

A synopsis in the first person singular, and the imperative, the infinitive, the participle, and the nounal verb, are here given: —

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[1] The **e** in **-es** is the connective **e** in O.E. **eð**. This **-eth**, **-th**, used only in poetry and in solemn style, is the invariable ending in the King James Version of the Bible.

[2] For a full account of the incidental offices of the tenses, as indicated by *indefinite*, *complete*, etc., see p. 178.

The Indicative. — (I) am driving; (I) may, can, *or* must be driving; (I) was driving; (I) might, could, would, *or* should be driving; (I) shall be driving; (I) have been driving; (I) may, can, *or* must have been driving; (I) had been driving; and (I) might, could, would, *or* should have been driving. **The Subjunctive.** — (I) be driving; (I) may be driving; (I) were driving; (I) might, could, would, *or* should be driving; (I) have been driving; (I) may have been driving; (I) had been driving; and (I) might, could, would, *or* should have been driving. **Imperative.** — Be (you *or* thou) driving; be (you *or* ye) driving. **Infinitives.** — (To) be driving; and (to) have been driving. **Participles.** — Being driving; been driving; and having been driving. **Nounal Verbs.** — Being driving; having been driving.

The Conjugation of the Verb with the Auxiliary *Do*. — It was said, p. 194, that *do*, *do*-**st**, *do*-**es**, *di*-**d**, and *di*-**d-st** are used with the **present infinitive** of a verb to help conjugate the verb in **negative** and **interrogative** sentences, and in those whose action is to be made **emphatic**, as in,

(I) do love, etc.; (I) do not love, etc.; do (I) love? etc.; do (I) not love? etc.; (I) did love, etc.; (I) did not love, etc.; did (I) love? etc.; did (I) not love? etc.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS IN THE PASSIVE VOICE

The conjugation of a verb, strong or weak, in the **Passive Voice** is effected by adding its **past participle** to all the forms of ***Be***.

Neglecting some auxiliaries and forms that only repeat, we illustrate: —

Am chosen; may be chosen; was chosen; might be chosen; shall be chosen; will be chosen; have been chosen; may have been chosen; had

been chosen; might have been chosen; be chosen; (to) be chosen; (to) have been chosen; being chosen; chosen; having been chosen.

The forms just given are those of the passive voice in the simple tenses[1] indefinite, and in the compound[1] tenses complete.

For the **passive denoting continuing action,** a conjugation[2] has long been in use, consisting of the forms of *be* plus the present participle of the verb used, as: —

"The house *is building*"; "The wood *was burning*,"

precisely the conjugation of these verbs in the active voice when denoting continuing action.

No ambiguity can arise from this sameness so long as the verb, as used, is unmistakably active or passive; but when, as used, it is one whose subject may name both the doer and the receiver of the act, the **sentence is ambiguous,** as: —

"The chicken is eating"; "The boy is whipping."

While there was but a single form to denote one as acting and as acted upon, these sentences would not tell whether the chicken was alive and eating, or dead and being eaten; whether the boy was whipping somebody, or was being whipped by him.

A century ago there crept into use a new and unambigu-

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[1] For the tenses called *simple*, and those called *compound*, see p. 178.

[2] For the origin of this, see pp. 164, 165.

ous form for the passive denoting continuing action — a phrase consisting of the forms of *be* in the present and the past, plus the participle *being* and the past participle of the verb used, as: —

"The chicken *is being eaten*"; "The boy *was being whipped.*"

We say in the present and the past, for this conjugation is confined to these tenses. Though firmly resisted, this "neologism" has won its way into good usage even with verbs where the old form would be unambiguous.

Proscribed Verb Locutions. — We are told (1) that after an auxiliary the principal verb must be repeated, unless the exact form of it already employed may be used with the auxiliary; (2) that between auxiliaries no adverb should be placed; (3) that *do* may be substituted for transitive verbs only; (4) that the nounal verb in the present should not follow *after*; and that we must avoid (5) the neologism described above; (6) the idiom *can help*, seen in I *can't help* thinking; (7) I *am mistaken* for I *mistake*; (8) *consider*, for *think*, *deem*; (9) *grow*, to express decrease; (10) *would* instead of *should* in softened assertion; (11) *get*, unless to express attainment by exertion, and (12) *had rather*, *had better*, with the infinitive, instead of *would rather*, *would better*.

Usage approves the locutions here condemned, employing those proscribed in (2), (4), (5), (7), (8), (11), and (12) far more commonly than the alternative expressions there given or suggested. We illustrate.[1]

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[1] (1) "No one *knows* that better than I *do*," "He *saw* it, but I *could* not," "I have never *read* them my sermon, and I don't know that I *shall*"; (2) "The principle *may easily be* traced," "It *will not be* suppressed," "*Can hardly have* been learned"; (3) "Nothing worse *happens* to you than *does* to all"; (4) "So, *after*

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — The Conjugation of *Be;* of *Have;* of *Drive;* of *Walk.* Verb-endings now in English. Conjugation of Verbs when denoting Continuing Action; with the auxiliary *Do;* in the Passive Voice. Passive denoting Continuing Action. Proscribed Verb Locutions.

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waiting a minute, I began again"; (5) "A field *was being got* ready for turnips"; (6) "He's a free-trader because he *can't help* it"; (7) "I think he *must be mistaken*"; (8) "Curious, that we always *consider* solemnity essential to the idea of a future life"; (9) "Did you ever hear of a man's *growing lean* by reading *Romeo and Juliet?*" (10) "It *would seem* so"; (11) "*Get* wet," "*got* well," "*got* sick," "*got* tired," "*got* dingy by use," etc. — *get = become;* "You've *got* to learn" — *get* and *have* express necessity; "Knowledge that has *got* itself taught" — *got* is causative; "As we *get* on in years" — *get* denotes passive movement; (12) "I *had rather be* a kitten and cry mew," "They *had better confine* themselves to plain English."

"Forms disputed by certain grammatical critics from the days of Samuel Johnson, the critics insisting upon the substitution of *would* or *should*, as the case may demand, for *had;* but *had rather* and *had better* are thoroughly established English idioms having the almost universal popular and literary sanction of centuries. 'I *would rather* not go' is undoubtedly correct when the purpose is to emphasize the element of choice, or will, in the matter; but, in all ordinary cases, 'I *had rather* not go' has the merit of being idiomatic and easily and universally understood.

"If, for 'You *had better* stay at home,' we substitute, 'You *should better* stay at home,' an entirely different meaning is expressed, the idea of expediency giving place to that of obligation." — *Standard Dictionary.*

In the analysis of "*I had rather go,*" *had* is the predicate verb, the infinitive *go* is the objective complement, and the adjective *rather* completes *had* and belongs to *go*, *i.e.* is objective complement. *Had* (= *should hold* or *regard*) is treated as a past subjunctive. *Rather* is the comparative of the old adjective *rathe*, 'early,' from which comes the idea of preference. The expression means, "I should hold going preferable."

The expressions, "You *had better* stay," "I *had as lief* not be," are similar in construction to "I *had rather* go." "I *had sooner* go" is condemned by grammarians because *sooner* is never an adjective. If *sooner* is here allowed as an idiom, it is a modifier of *had*. The expression equals, "I should more willingly have going."

Questions. — In what modes are *may*, *can*, and *must* used? They help to assert what in the indicative, active and passive? In the subjunctive, active and passive? In what modes are *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* used? Conjugate *have* in the present and the past, simple form, indicative and subjunctive. The further conjugation of *have* is effected how? Conjugate *drive* and *walk* in the present and the past, simple form, indicative and subjunctive. The further conjugation of *drive* and *walk* is effected how? The **-m** in *am* from what? The **-e** in *are?* The O.E. terminations retained in Mn.E. are what? And have changed from what? When is **-es**, rather than **-s**, the third singular present indicative ending? The O.E. **-eth**, **-th** used now only where? Invariably used in what common book? How is the conjugation of verbs when denoting continuing action effected? Give a synopsis in the first person singular indicative of *drive*, when denoting continuing action. The conjugation of a verb, strong or weak, in the passive voice of the simple tenses indefinite and the compound tenses complete, is effected how? The old fashion of conjugating a verb in the passive when denoting continuing action is what? How did it originate? This conjugation is precisely what other? When only could ambiguity arise from this sameness? What has arisen to prevent this ambiguity? The new form consists of what? Is limited to what two tenses? What is said of this "neologism"? What are the proscribed verb locutions? Which ones of these are more common than the alternative expressions prescribed? What of *had rather* and *had better?*

Exercises. — Conjugate *be* throughout; *have* throughout; *drive* and *walk*, in active voice, throughout — in simple tenses indefinite, compound tenses complete, and simple and compound continuing. Conjugate *drive* in the passive voice. Illustrate the ambiguity of *be* with the present participle active of a verb, when the verb is one whose subject may be the doer or the receiver of the act. Give and illustrate the several uses of *get*.

CHAPTER XXIII

THE ADVERB

Adverbs — Uses. — There are words that modify verbs, and hence are called **Adverbs**, as in

"He *ran swiftly*"; "She *walked thither*"; "They *stay late.*"

The acts expressed by *ran* and *walked*, and the state denoted by *stay*, are here limited by *swiftly*, *thither*, and *late*, adverbs of manner, place, and time.

Some **adverbs modify adjectives**—affect the degree of the quality or the measure of the quantity denoted by them; and **some modify adverbs** themselves. Adverbs, then, modify verbs and the modifiers of nouns and of verbs.[1]

We said that adjectives modify nouns by lessening the number or quantity of the things named. What effect adverbs have upon the scope of the words they modify depends upon the signification of the adverbs. In

"The soil is *wonderfully fertile*"; "He wanted *less spacious* grounds,"

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[1] Adverbs, then, are preëminently the modifiers in sentences. Those that qualify verbs are more numerous and more frequently used than those that qualify adjectives or adverbs. Upon adverbs and their equivalents we largely rely in expressing delicate shades of meaning, in making subtile distinctions of thought.

the quality denoted by *fertile* is increased by *wonderfully*, and the quantity denoted by *spacious* is decreased by *less*. In

"He admires her *very much*"; "*How seldom have* you *slept* here?"

the act asserted by *admires* is intensified by *much*, and the measure of *much* is increased by *very*; the state expressed by *have slept* is narrowed by *seldom*; while the infrequency implied in *seldom* is only sought by the interrogative *how*.

Exceptional Uses of Adverbs. — 1. **Some adverbs** may **modify some prepositions,**[1] as: —

"This is *just within* the line"; "I went *far beyond* the limit."

2. **Adverbs** may **modify a phrase,**[1] as: —

"*Only by eternal vigilance* is liberty preserved."

3. **Adverbs** may **modify clauses** and **sentences,** as: —

"She sat, *simply because she could not stand*"; "*Undoubtedly two and two are four.*"

4. **Adverbs** may **modify nouns,**[2] as: —

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[1] Many prepositions, as we shall see, were once adverbs; hence adverbs may modify them. Such phrases as those above are adverbial; hence adverbs may modify them.

[2] Such nouns as *journey*, *arrival*, *flight*, and *stay*, in these and similar expressions, have lingering in them a verbal force; hence adverbs may modify them.

In "yours truly," *yours* = 'your friend'; and *yours truly* = 'your true friend.' The contained noun is unexpressed; and, as Wrightson would say, its attribute *true* can appear only as an adverb *truly*.

"His *journey thence* was eventful"; "His *arrival there* was in the nick of time"; "The soul in its *flight upward*"; "My *stay abroad* was pleasant."

5. **Some adverbs** are **independent**, as:—

"*There* are evils to be overcome"; "*Now*, that is hardly fair."

6. **Adverbs** may be **used as nouns**,[1] as:—

"Since *when* was this doctrine taught?" "A scholar seeks the *why* and the *wherefore* of everything"; "*Before now*"; "*By then*."

7. **Adverbs** may **connect clauses**, as:—

"A true soldier goes *where* and *when* he is ordered."

8. Some **adverbs** are **interrogative**, as:—

"*How*, *when*, *where*, and *why* is this to be done?"

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS

We saw that adjectives are inflected in O.E. as nouns are.

I. **Some Adverbs are derived from Adjectives.**—1. From the O.E. genitive, with the ending **-s**, sometimes modified, as:—

backwards, else, forwards, once, twice, unawares, etc.

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[1] *When*, in "since when," = 'what time'; *now*, in "before now," = 'this time'; and *then*, in "by then," = 'that time'; hence the *when*, *now*, and *then* are nouns, and in the objective. *The* makes nouns of *why* and *wherefore* in the sentence above.

2. From the O.E. **dative** with the ending **-e** dropped, so that the adverb and the adjective are the same in form, as: —

bright, clean, dear, deep, even, fair, fast, full, hard, high, ill, long, loud, near, right, slow, soft, still, wide, etc.

3. From the O.E. **accusative**, with ending dropped, as: —

all, enough, ere, homeward, upward, etc.

4. By **adding** to an adjective the ending **-ly**,[1] from O.E. *līc-e*, an ending so common — added even to words already adverbs — that it is regarded as the **normal** adverbial ending, as: —

ably, bitterly, certainly, frequently, hardly, lastly, scarcely, shortly,[2] etc.

II. **Some Adverbs come from Nouns.** — 1. From the **genitive**, as: —

always, betimes, needs, lengthways, now-a-days,[3] whilst, etc.

2. From the **dative**, as: —

piecemeal, whilom,[4] etc.

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[1] Our *like*, as an independent word, and as adjective ending in *godlike*, *godly*, etc., is from the same O.E. adjective *gelīc*, 'like.' *Likely* = *like* + *like*. *Līc-e* is an instrumental case = in like manner; *ably* = in an able manner.

[2] In England, *shortly* is often used as we use *briefly*. This use of it, in its old Chaucerian sense, is almost unknown on this side of the water. With us it means 'soon,' 'presently,' or 'curtly.'

[3] This *a*, like the introductory *a* in *abed*, *abroad*, *afar*, *ahead*, *amid*, *anon*, *apiece*, *asleep*, *away*, and *awry*, is the O.E. *on*, 'in' or 'on.' The *a* in *apace*, *apart*, and perhaps in *agog* is the French *à*, the Latin *ad*.

[4] *Late* and *like* as adjectives and as adverbs retain the **-e**; *seldom* retains the adjective dative ending **-um** (*om*); and *whilom*, the noun ending.

3. From the **accusative**, as: —

meantime, midway, straightway, yesterday, etc.

III. **Some Adverbs come from O.E. Pronouns.** — 1. From the **third personal** pronoun *hē*: —

hence, here, hither.

2. From the **demonstrative** pronoun *ðæt* and *ðes*: —

the (as in *the* sooner *the* better), then, thence, there, thither, thus.

3. From the **interrogative** pronoun *hwā, hwæt*: —

how, what,[1] when, whence, where, whither, why.

IV. **Some Adverbs are compounded of Two Parts of Speech.** — 1. **Adjective** and **noun**, as: —

alway, meanwhile, midway, yesterday, etc.

2. **Adjective** and **adverb**, as: —

also, anywhere, as,[2] everywhere, nowhere, somewhere, etc.

3. **Preposition** and **adjective**, as: —

afar, afresh, anew, anon, amid, awry,[3] etc.

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[1] *What*, meaning *partly*, as in "*What* with the weather and *what* with the diet, he fell sick."

[2] *As*, O.E. *ealswā*, is our *also* — a doublet of it — the *al*(= *eal*, 'all,') strengthening *so*.

[3] We still use, without compounding, the preposition and the adjective; as, *at all*, *at best*, *for lost*, *for worse*, *in brief*, *in full*, *in future*, *in general*, *in particular*, *in short*, *in vain*, *of late*, etc. There is here an evident ellipsis of the nouns.

4. **Preposition** and **noun**, as: —

abed, aboard, agog, ahead, apace, apart, apiece, asleep, away, besides, forsooth, overboard, perchance, to-day, to-morrow, etc.

5. **Adverb** and **adverb**, as: —

however, whenever, wherever, etc.

6. **Adverb** and **preposition**, as: —

forever, hereafter, hereby, herein, thereat, thereby, therefore, whereat, whereby, wherein, etc.

7. **Adverb** and **noun**, as: —

naught, no, not,[1] nought,[1] etc.

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[1] *Not* is an abbreviation of *nought* or *naught;* and *naught* is from O.E. *nāwiht* — *ne* + *ā* + *wiht* — 'not a whit.' In English, as in other languages, a negative may be strengthened by a noun, as in "not a *bit*," "not a *jot*." Compare Lat. *nihil* — *ne* + *hilum* — 'not a straw'; French *ne pas*, *ne point*, 'not a step,' 'not a point.' The added noun may even crowd out the real negative, and take upon itself the office of negation, as in *pas de tout*, 'not at all.' A general linguistic fact is here illustrated.

"The negative particle in our language is simply the consonant **n**. In Saxon it existed as a word **ne**; but we have lost that word, and it is now a letter only, which enters into many words, as into *no*, *not*, *nought*, *none*, *neither*, *nor*, *never*." — *Earle*.

It may be worth remarking that while there are many negative nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and conjunctions in our language, negation is more frequently expressed in English by the adverb than by any other part of speech — than by all other parts of speech. A very large per cent of these adverbs modify the verb. That is to say, it is largely through the adverb that what the predicate expresses is declared not to be true of the thing named by the subject. It is very suggestive that much of what is said consists of denial — is taken up in telling, not what is true of things, but what is not true of them; or in telling indirectly what is true of them.

The adjective *no* is an abbreviation of *none;* the adverb *no* = *ne* + *ā* = 'not ever.' *Yes* is from *geā* + *swā* or from *geā* + *sīe* (a subjunctive of the O.E. verb *bēon*, to 'be'). If from the first pair, it means 'Yea so'; if from the second,

8. **Many Parts of Speech**, as: —

altogether, nevertheless, notwithstanding, etc.

Adverbial Phrases. — Colloquial speech and literature abound in expressions adverbial in force, each made up of two or more words, one of which is usually a preposition. In some of these, words are used in a figurative sense; some have become **idioms** — expressions peculiar to the language but often illogical in sense.

A few of the more frequent adverbial phrases are given below.[1]

'Yea, so be it.' *No* and *yes*, used in answering questions, are sometimes called *independent adverbs*. They seem to modify words omitted in the answer, but contained in the question; as, "Did you see him?" "*No*" = I did *no*(*not*) see him. "Will you go?" "*Yes*." The force of *yes* may be illustrated by substituting *certainly*. "Will you go?" "*Certainly*" = *Certainly* I will go, or I will *certainly* go.

As *no* and *yes* represent or suggest complete answers, they may be called **sentence-words**.

An obsolete distinction between *yea* and *yes* and between *nay* and *no* is perhaps worth recalling. In answer to such a question as, "Did he walk?" *yea* or *nay* was used; in answer to "Did he *not* walk?" *yes* or *no*. Tyndale's failure to observe this distinction is urged by Sir Thomas More as proof that Tyndale was incompetent to translate the Bible into English.

[1] Above all, after all, all in all, at a loss, at all, at all events, at any rate, at best, at heart, at fault, at first sight, at hand, at last, at least, at length, at most, at once, at one, at random, at that, at the best, at the most, at times, back and forth, by and by, by heart, by no means, by the bye, by the way, day by day, for a while, for all that, for certain, for example, for good, for granted, for instance, for long, for lost, for once, for that matter, for the most part, for the present, for the time, from time to time, hand in hand, here and there, in a word, in brief, in general, in fact, in full, in future, in other words, in part, in particular, in short, in spite of, in the first place, in the main, in truth, in vain, in view, more and more, more or less, no doubt, no matter, none the less, of a truth, of course, on hand, on foot, on the contrary, on the one hand, on the other hand, on the whole, once for all, once in a while, one by one, over and above, side by side, step by step, to and fro, to the full, under the circumstances, under way.

Proscribed Adverbial Locutions.— Some critics, in disregard of Professor Lounsbury's admirable dictum, "**Purism is not purity,**" condemn such adverbs and adverb phrases as these :—

As (after a negative), *at all*, *at best*, *at length* (= 'at last'), *from thence*, *from whence*, *here* (after verbs of motion), *just* (to express time), *quite* (= 'very'), *so* (after an affirmative), *there* (after verbs of motion), and *whether or no* (instead of *not*).[1]

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation.—Adverbs—Uses, Common and Exceptional, Derivation. Adverb Phrases. Proscribed Adverb Locutions.

Questions.—Why called *adverbs?* What besides verbs do they modify? Adverbs preëminently what? Their effect upon the scope of the words they modify? Illustrate. Why may adverbs modify prepositions? Why nouns like *journey*, *stay*, *flight*, etc.? Why phrases? Clauses? Illustrate, and account for, their use as nouns. From what O.E. cases of adjectives are adverbs derived? The com-

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[1] *As* after a negative is less common than *so*; *so* after an affirmative is less common than *as*; *from thence* and *from whence* are not so often seen as *thence* and *whence*; *here* and *there* are less frequent with verbs of motion than are *hither* and *thither*; and *whether or not* is found oftener than *whether or no*. Still these proscribed expressions occur too frequently to be put under ban.

At all may be scooped up by the handful; *at best* is oftener used than the correlative phrase, *at the best*; *at length*, meaning 'at last,' *just* as an adverb of time, and *quite*, in the sense of 'very,' appear on almost every page of literature.

As and *so*, after negatives, connote different ideas. "In 'John is not *as* tall as James,' there is no implication that the speaker regards either John or James as tall; there is merely a comparison of their heights. But, if one says, 'John is not *so* tall as James,' though the *so* is not emphasized, there is understood usually to be a reference, more or less distinct, to something uncommon in the height of James, as compared with that of other men, or of other boys of his age."—*Standard Dictionary*.

mon adverb ending? Derived from what? The *om* in *seldom* and *whilom* from what? From what cases of nouns are adverbs derived? Illustrate. From what classes of pronouns? Illustrate. Some adverbs are what parts of speech coupled? Illustrate. What is the general negative seen in *not?* What is the noun? Give other negatives containing nouns. What may the noun do to the negative in such combination? The component parts of *no* and *yes?* What are these two sometimes called? Some of the more common adverb phrases? Lounsbury's admirable dictum?

Exercises.—Give the list of adverbs that have the same form as adjectives. The lists of adverbs derived from the pronouns, O.E., *hē*, *ðæt*, *ðes*, *hwā*, and *hwæt*. The uses of adverbs and adverb phrases proscribed by purists, but approved by usage. The distinction made by the *Standard Dictionary* between "John is not *as tall* as James," and "John is not *so tall* as James."

CHAPTER XXIV

THE ADVERB — (*Continued*)

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS AND ADVERB PHRASES

I. **Classified according to their Office.** — Some adverbs and adverb phrases perform the single office of modifying verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. These are called **Simple Adverbs.** The great mass of adverbs and adverb phrases fall into this class.

But just as participles have two natures and offices, a verbal and an adjectival; as nounal verbs have two, a verbal and a nounal; as relative pronouns have two, a nounal and a conjunctive; — so some adverbs and adverb phrases have two, an adverbial and a conjunctive. These are called **Conjunctive Adverbs** and **Adverb Phrases.**

The **Conjunctive Adverbs and Phrases** connecting **Coördinate Clauses** are

accordingly, also, besides, consequently, else, furthermore, hence, however, likewise, moreover, nevertheless, notwithstanding, now, on the contrary, on the other hand, otherwise, so, still, then, thence, yet.

The **Conjunctive Adverbs** connecting **Subordinate Clauses**[1] to **Principal** are

[1] Mason impliedly restricts the modifying force of a conjunctive adverb to the verb, adjective, or adverb in its own clause. *Accordingly*, *also*, *hence*, *now*, *so*, *still*, *yet*, etc. connecting coördinate clauses are restricted as Mason asserts. But (1) the

after, as, before, ere, how, however, since, than, that, the — the, till, until, when, whence, whenever, where, whereby, wherein, wherever, while, whilst, and why.

II. **Classified according to their Meaning.** — Classified thus, adverbs are easily grouped under time, place, degree, manner, and cause. We give only a few common illustrations of each class.

1. **Adverbs of Time.** — **Present**, forthwith, immediately, instantly, now, to-day.

Past, ago, already, before, heretofore, hitherto, lately, since, then, yesterday.

Future, afterwards, by and by, directly,[1] hereafter, henceforth, soon, to-morrow.

Duration, always, ever, incessantly, never, perpetually, still, while.

Frequency, again, daily, frequently, often, once, periodically, rarely, seldom, sometimes.

2. **Adverbs of Place.** — **Rest in**, above, below, elsewhere, here, near, there, where, yonder.

Motion from, away, back, hence, thence, whence.

Motion towards, forward, hither, onward, thither, whither.

3. **Adverbs of Degree**, all, almost, as, as — as, easily, enough, far,

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conjunctive adverbs *when*, *where*, *wherein*, *whereby*, and *why*, when introducing adjective clauses and having the office of relative pronouns, and (2) conjunctive adverbs, like *as*, *ere*, *since*, *than*, *when*, connecting subordinate clauses of time, place, degree, and manner to principal clauses, modify or describe or limit words in those clauses as well as words in their own.

[1] *Directly* = 'as soon as,' is not employed by American writers or speakers. But very many English authors would say with Newman, "*Directly* they are loved for their own sake, they return to their original dust."

hardly,[1] **just, least, less, little, more, most, much, nearly, only, perfectly, quite, scarcely, so,**[2] **than,**[3] **the — the, too, very.**[4]

4. **Adverbs of Manner,** as, as — so, fast, like, long, no, not, so,[2] thus, well, and most adverbs in *-ly*.

5. **Adverbs of Cause,** consequently, hence, therefore, thus, whence, wherefore, why.

Two Negative Adverbs in the Same Assertion. — In O.E. and in M.E., two, or more than two, negative adverbs in the same assertion strengthen[5] the negation; in Mn.E. two

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[1] English writers often use *hardly* in the sense of *harshly, with severity;* as, "The prisoner was *hardly* treated." Americans use it in the sense of *scarcely, with difficulty;* as, "He was *hardly* able to walk."

[2] *So*, as an adverb of degree, more frequently as an adverb of manner, is often a compendious substitute for a phrase or a clause; as, "*Half a dozen* or *so*"; "There was no one to *enforce the law and enforce order*, since the Emperor was too weak to do *so*"; "It is not yet *all it might be* or *all it should be*, but we mean to make it *so*."

[3] The conjunctive force of *than* is now prominent, but *than* is from *then*. "He is taller *than* I" = "He is taller *then* (= next to him) am I," Whitney says. Mason and West say that *than* (O.E. *þanne*) originally meant *when;* and that therefore "He is taller than I" = "He is taller *when* I am tall." Mason adds that to regard *than* as equivalent to *then* "inverts the logical order of the ideas, making the comparative degree itself the standard of comparison."

[4] *Very* modifies adjectives, participles used as adjectives, and adverbs, but not verbs. Some think that such expressions as, "He is *very pleased*" are creeping into favor; but they are not in general use, not even in occasional use, among the best English and American writers.

[5] The stock illustration from Chaucer is, "He *nevere* yit *no* vileinye *ne* sayde in all his lyf unto *no* maner wight." The change is credited to the influence of the Latin construction — favored by Milton and the Latinists of his day.

In a compound assertion, usage is about equally divided on this point: whether to use *nor*, and thus repeat the negation in the preceding *not, no*, or other negative, or to employ *or*, and allow the *not, no*, or other word, to make all parts of the assertion negative. We have the best of authority for both locutions; as, "Our healing is *not* in the storm *or* in the whirlwind"; "It is *not* in monarchies *or* aristocracies *or* democracies"; "They had *no* horses *nor* oxen *nor* carts"; "The world will *very little*

negatives in the same assertion neutralize each other and leave the assertion affirmative, as: —

"This is *not un*likely"; "*Un*belief is *not* the supreme end sought."

Comparison of Adverbs. — Adverbs, like adjectives, have a single modification, — **comparison,** — though, from their nature, few except those of degree and manner receive it. Of the common adverbs of time and of place that are compared, we may mention

frequently, lately, often, rarely, seldom, soon, and far and near.

Some adverbs, like *often* and *soon*, and those that are derived from adjectives and are the same in form (see p. 240, I. 2), take the **-er** and **-est** to denote increase; but most of those subject to comparison prefix *more* and *most* to denote this. All of them, like adjectives, prefix *less* and *least* to express diminution.

Adverbs Irregular in Comparison. — Some adverbs, like adjectives, form degrees from different stems; there is one, at least, whose positive and superlative are now obsolete; and there are some whose endings of comparison are peculiar. These inheritances from O.E. are here grouped: —

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note, *nor* long remember, what we say here." Possibly the negation is strengthened by the repetition.

Of course, *nor* must be used after *neither*, as in "Who *neither* turned *nor* looked at him *nor* spoke."

POS.	COMP.	SUPER.	POS.	COMP.	SUPER.
badly, ill,	worse,	worst.	little,	less,	least.
			much,	more,	most.
far,	farther,	farthest.	——,	rather,[1]	——.
forth,	further,	furthest.	well,	better,	best.

Adverbs, and their Number and Place in Sentences. — The adverbs and adverb phrases used (1) should fitly[2] express the modification intended; (2) should be few[3] rather than many; and (3) should be so placed[4] that no reasonable doubt can arise as to what they were meant to modify — placed, consequently, as near as possible to the words they modify, regard being had to euphony and to the rights of other words.

Seldom should an adverb stand between *to*[5] and its infinitive.

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[1] *Rather* in the sense of *somewhat* is not a comparative in force.

[2] Adverbs that fill the mouth or the ear, but are meaningless because general and indefinite, easily impose upon the speaker or writer. Shots that do not hit the mark swell the roar but waste the ammunition.

[3] Facility in the use of adverbs is not always felicity. Better to leave the appetite unsatisfied than to clog it. If one is to lean either way, let it be to the side of paucity.

[4] The parts of a sentence should not be disjointed or misjointed, but should cohere — each part attached to that to which it belongs. The difficulty of proper position is great — *only* is seldom in place, and phrases are proverbial stragglers.

The following misplaced adverbs and adverb (and adjective) phrases illustrate the point: "There have been things they called comic operas *by the dozen*"; "I should like to come *very much*"; "He finds himself in possession *only* of a jumbled collection of synonyms"; "Every schoolboy . . . has known who Brutus was *any time these fifteen hundred years*"; "An effect *of which* the loss would make the English language poorer"; "More effective than that of a *perhaps cleverer* man."

[5] "Cleft or split infinitives" — infinitives separated by adverbs from their *to* — are found in English all the way down; FitzEdward Hall and others have shown this But there is no doubt that usage is against adverbs' being thus sandwiched. Our

Whether Adverb or Adjective. — It is asked whether, after **appear, arrive, come, feel, grow, hang, keep, look, shine, sit, smell, stand, taste,** etc., one should use[1] an adverb or an adjective. The only guide seems to be this: If the word is to modify the subject,[2] use an adjective; if to modify the verb, an adverb.

This rule forces one to determine which office the word is to have[3] when used with such verbs.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Adverbs Classified according to Office and Meaning. Comparison of Adverbs. Number and Place in Sentences. When an Adjective to be Used and when an Adverb.

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best writers seldom place adverbs there; and only when there is a felicitous coherence of adverb and verb, like that of a happy compound.

"Do not use the split infinitive unless you have a valid reason for it. Old examples can be quoted in some numbers, yet it never was a genuine colloquialism, but only an artificial scholasm." — *Earle.*

Whether to place the adverb before the *to* or after the infinitive is a question to be settled by clearness, by regard for the right to position other words have, and by the ear.

[1] Certain adverbs and adjectives, see p. 240, I. 2, are alike in form. What to call them in parsing, often troubles one when they stand after the verbs above.

[2] We saw, foot-note 2, p. 238, that a noun with a verb lingering in it may be modified by an adverb. We are speaking now of nouns with special verbs.

[3] To aid in determining this, we may say that when the intransitive verbs *appear, arrive, come, grow, look, sit, stand,* etc. — and *feel, hang, keep, shine, smell, taste,* etc. used intransitively — express not so much action as state, and state with the general meaning of *being* or *seeming* or *becoming*, the word to be used should modify the subject, be an adjective; if action is uppermost in the verb, the word should modify the verb, be an adverb. These sentences from the *Standard Dictionary* illustrate both points: —

"The decision appears (apparently *is*) *unjust*"; "The ship appeared (*came* into view) *suddenly*"; and "The physician felt the pulse *carefully* (in a careful manner), and observed that the patient's hand felt *cold* (*was cold* to the touch)."

Questions. — What are simple adverbs? Conjunctive adverbs and phrases? What subdivisions of other parts of speech have double offices? What do conjunctive adverbs connect? Wherein Mason wrong, by implication at least? Wherein right? Adverbs of time and place subdivisible into what? *Directly* and *hardly* used how in England? *So* a compendious substitute for what? *Very* may modify what? May not modify what? In O.E. and M.E., two or more negatives do what? In Mn.E., what? Usage says what respecting *nor* to repeat the negative of a preceding *not* or *no?* Some adverbs whose comparative and superlative are not from the positive stem; some whose comparative and superlative endings are peculiar; one used only in the comparative? What is said of the choice of adverbs? Of the number used? Their place in the sentence? What adverb often out of place? What adverb phrases? An adverb should seldom be placed where? What does usage say of the "cleft infinitive"? What governs the placing of the adverb modifying the infinitive? After what verbs may there be doubt whether to use adjectives or adverbs? What is to guide? What may aid in determining the office of the word to be used? What words whose syntax may trouble us in parsing?

Exercises. — Write some sentences, each with a clause of place or time or degree or manner, introduced by an adverb modifying words in both clauses. Some with a negative followed by *or*, and some with a negative strengthened by *nor*. Some illustrating the varied placing of the adverb with the infinitive. Correct the faults of position in foot-note 4, p. 250. Write sentences where the adjective is the proper word after *appear*, *come*, *feel*, *grow*, *look*, *shine*, *smell*, and *taste;* and some where the adverb is the proper word after these verbs.

CHAPTER XXV

THE PREPOSITION

Derivation and Name.—Most of the English prepositions were earlier adverbs.[1] They got their name from being placed before one of the words whose relations they expressed.

Their Original Office.— Stems, like those of pronouns, were used (1) to express the relations existing between the actions[2] indicated by verbs and the things denoted by nouns; used (2) to make clearer the relations between things and qualities of things on the one hand, and things on the other.

"In Sanskrit, the oldest extant writing of the Indo-Europeans, these stems are found (1) as independent words, (2) as prefixes of verbs, and (3) as case-endings of nouns—(1) and (2) called *prepositions*, and (3) *case-endings*. When the independent words express the relations of a verb, adjective, or adverb, in a general way, without a limiting noun, they are called *adverbs*.

"In Sanskrit there are twenty-one prepositional stems which sometimes combine with verbs, nine which never combine, and many

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[1] Many prepositions are still used as adverbs—especially when not followed by nouns.

[2] That prepositions assisted in expressing relations—relations registered in the case-endings of nouns—is seen in the fact that with different verbs the same prepositions were followed by nouns with different case-endings.

adverbial forms with case-endings, which are used as prepositions." — *F. A. March.*

Classification.—The classification of prepositions is into **Simple** and **Compound.**

I. **Simple.**—The simple prepositions—all in O.E., though *till* was borrowed from the Norse—are

after, at, by, ere, for (fore), from, in, of (off), on, over, through, till, to, under, up, and with.

II. **Compound.**—1. **Prepositions with O.E. Adverb Prefixes** and **Suffixes.** The adverb prefixes are

in, un, 'unto,' and up.

The suffixed adverbs are

æftan, 'after,' foran, 'fore,' geond, 'across,' hindan, 'after,' innan, 'in,' neoðan, 'below,' ūtan, 'upward,' ūtan or ūt, 'out,' and weard, 'tendency to.'

The simple prepositions *a*, 'on,' *be*, 'by,' *on*, *through*, *till*, *to*, *under*, and *with* combine with the suffixes and prefixes above to form the prepositions,

abaft,[1] afore, before, beyond, behind, into, within, beneath, underneath, above,[1] about,[1] but, throughout, without, until, unto, upon, toward, and towards.

2. **Prepositions with O.E. Noun or Adjective Suffixes.**—The noun and adjective suffixes are

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[1] The prepositions *a*, 'on,' and *be*, 'by,' are found in *abaft* and *about* and *above*.

board, croix, 'cross,' dūn, 'hill,' geān, 'contrary to,' gemang, 'crowd,' lang, 'long,' louh, 'low,' middan, 'middle,' round, slant, stride, sīd, 'side,' twēon and tweoh, 'double,' ðām, 'that,' ðweorh, 'crooked.'

The simple prepositions *a*, 'on,' *a*, 'of' or 'off,' *a*, 'over against,' *be*, 'by,' combine with the suffixes above to form the prepositions,

aboard, across, adown[1] (down), against, among and amongst, along,[1] below, amid and amidst, around (round), aslant, astride, beside and besides, between and betwixt, and athwart. Since = sīð, 'after,' and ðām.

Relations expressed by Case-endings. — The objects first known were external, and the knowledge of them was largely knowledge of their space relations. The relations expressed most frequently in case-endings, except the nominative, the dative, — and the genitive in part, — were no doubt space relations.

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[1] The *a* in *adown* is the *a* 'of'; that in *along* is *a* in Latin *ante*.

Bating, *concerning*, *during*, *excepting*, *notwithstanding*, *past*, *pending*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *saving*, and *touching* are still participles in form and sometimes are such in use. But often the participial meaning has faded out of them, and they express mere relations.

Except and *save*, in such a sentence as, "All *except* (or *save*) *him* were lost," are usually classed with prepositions.

The phrases *aboard of*, *according to*, *along with*, *as to*, *because of* (by cause of), *from among*, *from between*, *from under*, *instead of* (in stead of), *out of*, *over against*, and *round about* may be called compound prepositions. But *from* in these compounds; as, "He crawled *from under the ruins*," really introduces a phrase the principal term of which is the phrase that follows *from*.

The locative case-ending signified in a place; the dative, inclination toward something in space — the personal relation between a giver and a receiver the prevailing one; the ablative, motion from a place; the accusative, reaching an object in space; and the instrumental, personal relation between an intelligent actor and his instrument, adjacency or accompaniment in space.

As man has extended his sphere of thought and action, the mental and personal relations have come to be expressed most frequently, and the spatial have become less prominent. The dative prevailingly expresses purpose or result rather than inclination toward; the ablative, origin, cause, agency, rather than movement from; the instrumental, means and manner rather than accompaniment.

Relations expressed by Prepositions. — Stating definitely and emphatically particular relations, of the class expressed by case-endings, prepositions gradually assumed the offices[1] of such endings and so displaced these inflections. In English, the displacement is almost total.

The development of prepositions in meaning and in office may be sought, then, along lines traceable in the development of case-endings. Almost all prepositions, whether simple or compound, like case-endings, originally expressed space relations. By metaphor and other figurative extension, these prepositions have been stretched to express relations of time, cause, manner, etc., and these in all their minute subdivisions and distinctions. We are now prepared for the

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[1] Wrightson says, "Called in at first merely to assist the failing cases, the prepositions have so nearly replaced them that we may speak of prepositions as case equivalents."

DEFINITION. — **A Preposition is a word that introduces a phrase modifier, and shows the relation, in sense, of its principal word to the word modified.**

It may be instructive to see some of the extensions of meaning that a few prepositions have added to their original space significations. We do not know the order of these extensions.

After. — **Place Subsequent,** "B stands *after* A"; **Pursuit,** "He strayed *after* a squirrel"; **Time Subsequent,** "The evil that men do lives *after* them"; **Aim,** "Strive *after* clearness"; **Imitation,** "Prints *after* the old masters"; **Accord,** "A man *after* my own heart"; **Reference,** "He had no heart to ask *after* any more friends"; **Concession,** "*After* all, he died poor"; **Cause,** "*After* the recognition he was happy."

At. — **Occupancy of place,** "*At* the center"; **Nearness,** "A peri *at* the gate"; **Motion toward,** "The dog sprang *at* the man"; **Time,** "He will go *at* ten"; **Occasion,** "*At* the word he rose"; **Degree,** "*At* least"; **State,** "*At* peace"; **Price,** "Papers *at* a cent apiece"; **Accord,** "By land or by water, *at* your choice"; **Manner,** "He spoke *at* a venture"; **Instrument,** "He lost money *at* cards"; **Cause,** "*At* thy rebuke they fled."

By. — **Proximity,** "He dwells *by* the bridge"; **Place where,** "Moving accidents *by* flood and *by* field"; **Via,** "We went to Buffalo *by* Albany"; **Passing without touching,** "They pass *by* me as the idle wind"; **Time,** "'Twas sad *by* fits, *by* starts 'twas wild"; **Agent,** "A novel *by* Scott"; **Manner,** "They marched *by* twos"; **Adjuration,** "But *by* the shades beneath us and *by* the gods above"; **Accord,** "Noon *by* the north clock, noon *by* the east"; **Instrument,** "Died *by* the sword"; **Measure,** "Older *by* fifteen years"; **Permission,** "*By* your gracious patience I will speak"; **Means,** "Grows *by* what it feeds on"; **Cause,** "*By* whom we live and move and have our being."

For (fore). — **Movement toward,** "He sailed *for* Europe"; **Duration,** "A prisoner *for* life"; **Behalf of,** "I bring fresh showers *for* the thirsting flowers"; **Exchange,** "He would give all he had *for* life"; **Substitution,** "Will he *for* a fish give him a serpent?" **Purpose,** "These things are written *for* our instruction"; **Concession,** "*For* all that, it is very dark here"; **Respect to,** "The sweetest flower *for* scent that blows"; **Attribute,** "Feet that might have served *for* shovels"; **Cause,** "They cannot see the end *for* the process."

From. — **Separation,** "Anything so overdone is *from* the purpose of playing"; **Movement away,** "He went *from* door to door"; **Time,** "*From* my youth up"; **Reason,** "Kings will be tyrants *from* policy when subjects are rebels *from* principle"; **Means,** "I cannot judge the liquor *from* the lees"; **Source,** "Religions are obsolete when lives do not proceed *from* them"; **Cause,** "Brave *from* habit."

In. — **Inclusion,** "*In* the room"; **Duration,** "*In* a lifetime"; **Material,** "Paid *in* gold"; **Occasion,** "Greatly to find quarrel *in* a straw when honor's at the stake"; **Manner,** "I said *in* my haste all men are liars"; **Means,** "*In* the tranquil grazing of cattle I am carried back to my youth"; **Conformity with,** "*In* my judgment this cannot last"; **Respect to,** "First *in* war and first *in* peace"; **Authority,** "Against this bill I protest *in* the name of the Irish people"; **Reference,** "I don't believe *in* principle, but oh! I do *in* interest."

Of (off). — **Distance,** "He stopped short *of* the goal"; **Quality,** "The man *of* wisdom is the man *of* years"; **Source,** "Defects *of* doubt and taints *of* blood"; **Material,** "A bridge *of* ice"; **Identity,** "The kingdom *of* Kent"; **Possession,** "The house *of* Shakespeare"; **Agency,** "Loved *of* none"; **Respect to,** "The dread *of* commonplace has lain heavily on Tennyson"; **Connection,** "The top *of* the hill"; **Partition,** "One *of* the books"; **Cause,** "He died *of* consumption."

On. — **Superposition,** "He lay *on* the floor"; **Direction,** "The house fronts *on* the river"; **Pursuit,** "They are *on* his tracks"; **Nearness,** "The fleet is *on* the French coast"; **Motion to,** "And they

fell *on* Sir Launfal as snows *on* the brine"; **Time,** "*On* that fateful day of Waterloo"; **Respect to,** "*On* their own merits modest men are dumb"; **Reason,** "He prided himself *on* his good looks"; **State,** "Fickle reason is like a drunken man *on* horseback"; **Adjuration,** "Tell me *on* thy life"; **Reference,** "A lecture *on* Burke"; **Cause,** "*On* his father's death he became insane."

Over. — **Position above,** "Ample folds as they float *over* the sea and *over* the land"; **Motion above and across,** "*Over* earth and ocean, with gentle motion, this pilot is guiding me"; **Motion on and across,** "The trail of the serpent is *over* them all"; **Measure,** "*Over* 10,000 bushels"; **Duration,** "Ice kept *over* summer"; **Superiority,** "They passed it *over* the veto"; **Means,** "He wearied himself *over* his books"; **Cause,** "He grieved *over* her death."

Through. — **Passage from limit to limit,** "He went *through* the tunnel"; **Duration,** "She lived *through* the year"; **Means,** "The building is lighted *through* the dome"; **Agency,** "He casteth out devils *through* Beelzebub"; **Cause,** "He died *through* over-exertion."

To. — **Movement reaching its object,** "If the hill will not come *to* Mahomet, Mahomet will go *to* the hill"; **Direction toward,** "Spires whose silent fingers point *to* heaven"; **Degree,** "Brave *to* temerity"; **Extent,** "*To* the number of thirty"; **Accord,** "Nerves that had long been strong *to* the music of battle"; **Accompaniment,** "We dance *to* music"; **Addition,** "For those of old, and the late dignities heaped up *to* them"; **Comparison,** "All that tread the globe are but a handful *to* the tribes that slumber in its bosom"; **Possession,** "It is an attribute *to* God himself"; **Purpose,** "He went *to* see his mother."

It is seen that there are myriad relations to be expressed in speech. There are but few cases in any synthetic language to express these. By the use of these relational words, the prepositions, an analytic tongue like ours becomes exact, specific, and definite, and can express finer

distinctions of thought than can a synthetic language which depends upon cases for this service.[1]

Proscribed Prepositional Locutions. — We are forbidden to use (1) *between*,[2] with more than two things; (2) *around*,[3] with verbs of motion; (3) *of*,[4] after *all*, *both*, *whole*; (4) *differ with*,[5] rather than *differ from*; and (5) we are enjoined not to end[6] a sentence with a preposition.

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[1] "As prepositions present the relation from the verb side and case-endings from the noun side, a goodly number of both, as in Sanskrit and Greek, would seem to promise most; but the distinctions become too fine, and the machinery too complex, for folk-speech or world-speech." — *F. A. March.*

[2] "We observe that *between* is not restricted to two." — *Imperial Dictionary.* "In all senses *between* has been, from its earliest appearance, extended to more than two. It is still the only word available to express the relation of a thing to many surrounding things severally and individually — *among* expressing a relation to them collectively and vaguely; we should not say, 'The choice lies *among* the three candidates,' or 'to insert a needle *among* the closed petals of a flower.'" — *The New English Dictionary.*

We have collected hundreds of sentences like this from Peile: "Etymologically there is no difference *between adverbs*, *prepositions*, and *conjunctions*" — sentences in which *between* is used by good writers with three or more. But guard against such expressions as, "*between each* page"; "a choice *between one* of several."

[3] After verbs of motion *around* is used almost as often as *round*.

[4] Such expressions as, "*All of the men*," "*Both of the boys*," "*The whole of the farm*," are not as common as "*All the men*," "*Both the boys*," "*The whole farm*"; but they are found by scores in almost every author.

[5] "*Differ with* is . . . reserved for 'have a difference with,' expressing conflicting opinion to. Say, 'Washington *differed from* Hamilton in temperament, but he did not *differ with* him in political theory.'" — *Standard Dictionary.*

[6] "A preposition is a feeble word to end a sentence *with*," we are told.

Of this rule, laid down without regard to usage and thoughtlessly repeated, Professor Austin Phelps says, "A preposition as such is by no means a feeble word"; and he quotes a burst of feeling from Rufus Choate which ends thus: "Never, so long as there is left of Plymouth Rock a piece large enough to make a gunflint *of!*" "This," Professor Phelps says, "is purest idiomatic English." He adds, "The old Scotch interrogative, 'What *for?*' is as pure English in written as in colloquial speech." Even the *to* of the infinitive phrase frequently ends a colloquial sentence.

The Use of Prepositions. — Care should be taken[1] (1) in the choice of prepositions, since they affect large fragments of sentences — phrases simple, compound, and complex; (2) though apt, they should not be used needlessly;[2] and (3) should not be omitted[3] when needed.

Prepositions used as Adverbs. — When the preposition

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[1] To illustrate — *beside* = *by the side of*; *besides* = *in addition to*, as in "*Besides* giving him money, I stood *beside* him in his sickness."

In denotes rest or motion in one place or condition; *into*, change from one to another; as, "When one is outside of a place he may get *into* it, but he cannot do anything *in* it until he has got *into* it."

In, not *at*, before names of countries, or of villages looked on as territory; *at* before names of cities regarded as points; as, "We landed *at New York*, *in* the *United States*"; "We live *in Hoboken*."

When the motion is to the upper surface of an object above, *upon*, not *on*, is used; as, "The cat jumped *upon* his shoulder."

Not "He fell *onto* or *on to* the rocks," but "He fell *on* or *upon* the rocks."

"We compare one thing *with* another to note agreement or difference; we compare one thing *to* another which we believe it to resemble." — *Standard Dictionary*.

Not "different *to*," "in respect *of*," "in regard *of*"; but "different *from*," "in respect *to*," "in regard *to*" — in American usage, at least.

[2] *At*, *for*, *in*, *of*, and *to* are needless here: "I graduated *at* 18 years old"; "A son *of* five years of age"; "He lives near *to* the church"; "Where are you going *to*?" "It is *to* you to whom they owe this"; "More than you think *for*"; "Keep off *of* the grass"; "*In* so far as he can, he will."

[3] *Of* is needed in (1), (2), (3), (4), and (5) below; *in*, in (6); *from*, in (7) and (8); and *at*, in (9): (1) "He remained outside the house"; (2) "The tree is inside the fence"; (3) "It is the size of an egg"; (4) "What use is this to him?" (5) "I am unworthy your regard"; (6) "There is no use going home"; (7) "He was prevented going"; (8) "He was banished the country"; (9) "They laughed at what they smiled before."

Speaking generally, a preposition should be used when it will make the thought clearer; hence it should be repeated before successive adjectives, nouns, and infinitives when the qualities or objects or acts are to be kept distinct and coördinate, as in, "Both *of* kindred and *of* alien blood"; "The rule holds *in* literature and *in* life"; "*With* men and *with* money"; "I wish *to* see and *to* hear you."

follows a verb or a term retaining a verb force, and does not itself introduce a phrase containing a noun or pronoun, the word may be regarded as an adverb, as: —

"He *rode past*"; "*Looking beyond*, he saw the hills"; "The *climb up* was painful"; "The *growth above* was abnormal."

But, if not preceded by a term that an adverb can modify, and not itself introducing a full phrase, we may supply the omitted noun or pronoun, and regard the word as a preposition, as: —

"The *sky above*" (*us*); "The *earth beneath*" (our *feet*); "The *river beyond*" (that *field*); "The *room within*" (the *house*).

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Prepositions — Simple and Compound. Relations expressed by Case-endings, by Prepositions. Extension of Meaning of Prepositions. Proscribed Prepositional Locutions.

Questions. — Prepositions originally what? Their name from what? Their original office, what? Name the simple prepositions in English. The O.E. adverb prefixes, what? The O.E. adverb suffixes, what? What prepositions combine with these, and form what? The O.E. noun and adjective suffixes, what? What prepositions combine with these, and form what? What participles now used as prepositions? What phrases now compound prepositions? What objects first known? Knowledge of these largely of what? The relations expressed by case-endings largely what originally? The several case-endings significant originally each of what space relation? Gradually

they came to signify what relations developed out of space relations? How came prepositions to displace the oblique case-inflections? In what language is the displacement almost complete? Wrightson says we may call prepositions what? Along what lines may the development of prepositions be sought? What has extended prepositions to express relations of time, cause, manner, etc., etc.? Definition of prepositions? By the use of prepositions analytic languages may do what? What use of (1) *between*, (2) *around* after verbs of motion, (3) *of* after *all*, *both*, *whole*, is proscribed? What do the purists say of *differ with*, and of a preposition ending a sentence? What has usage to say on these points? In using prepositions, care should be exercised in what three respects? Illustrate. When should prepositions be repeated? When do prepositions become adverbs?

Exercises. — With *after*, *at*, *by*, *far*, *from*, *in*, *of*, *on*, *over*, *through*, and *to*, illustrate some of the more important extensions of prepositions in use. Illustrate the proscribed prepositional locutions and defend them. In sentences of your own illustrate the fine distinctions between *besides* and *beside*, *in* and *into*, *in* and *at*, *on* and *upon*, *with* and *to*. Illustrate the need of repeating the prepositions.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE CONJUNCTION

THE parts of a sentence that unite to form **compounds** are (1) **individual words**, and groups of words called (2) **phrases** and (3) **clauses**. The parts that are **complex** are (1) **phrases** and (2) **clauses**.

The compound and the complex parts require connecting. **Conjunctions**, which connect them, are derived from other parts of speech — largely from prepositions.

DEFINITION. — **A Conjunction is a word used to connect words,[1] phrases, and clauses.[2]**

All conjunctions are connectives, but not all connectives are conjunctions; in addition to their office as adverbs and pronouns, conjunctive adverbs[3] and relative pronouns connect. At least, then, three parts of speech connect, but only conjunctions merely connect.

The **connectives** that are **conjunctions** are

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[1] *And*, *as*, *as well as*, *but*, and *or*, in such offices as they have in "John *and* James are brothers"; "Cromwell's rule *as* Protector began in 1653"; "He *as well as* I heard it;" "He was poor *but* prospering"; "Mahomet *or* Mohammed died in 632," connect individual words — *and* more frequently than the others.

[2] In continuous discourse sentences and even paragraphs are connected — by *and* and *but* chiefly.

[3] Conjunctive adverbial phrases, also; the relative *which*, used as adjective, also.

albeit, although (though), and, as well as, because, both — and, but, except,[1] for, if, in case that, in order that, lest, nor, on condition that, or, either — or, neither — nor, so that, provided, provided that, unless, whereas, whether.

The **connectives** that are **conjunctive adverbs** are

accordingly, after, also, before, besides, consequently, else, ere, furthermore, hence, how, however, likewise, moreover, nevertheless, notwithstanding, now, on the contrary, on the other hand, otherwise, so, still, than, then, therefore, till, until, when, whence, whenever, where, wherever, whereby, wherein, whilst, why, yet.

The **connectives** that are **relative pronouns** are

what, whatever, which, whichever, who, whoever.

The **connectives** that are **conjunctions** and **connective adverbs** are

as, since, while.

The **connective** that is a **conjunction**, a **conjunctive adverb**, and a **relative pronoun** is

that.

All connectives are (1) **coördinate**,[2] joining parts of equal rank; or (2) **subordinate**, joining parts of unequal rank — clauses[3] fully expressed or elliptical.

---

[1] Many conjunctives and conjunctive adverbs — *but*, *except*, *for*, *before*, etc. — are prepositions also. Their transition into connectives is said to have been caused by the omission of *that*, which in O.E. followed them when introducing clauses. The dropping of *that* devolved its office upon the prepositions and made them connectives.

[2] This division of connectives into coördinate and subordinate is fundamental. It concerns the mutual relation of the thoughts contained in clauses.

[3] Two clauses of unequal rank are joined by a subordinate connective; two clauses independent or equally dependent, by a coördinate connective.

I. **Coördinate connectives.**[1] — 1. **Copulative.** (1) The **copulative conjunctions** are

and, both — and, as well as.

The **copulative conjunctive adverbs** are

accordingly, also, consequently, furthermore, hence, likewise, moreover, now, so, then, therefore, thereupon, wherefore, whereupon.

2. **Adversative.** — (1) The **adversative conjunctions** are

but, whereas.

(2) The **adversative conjunctive adverbs** are

however, nevertheless, notwithstanding, on the contrary, on the other hand, still, yet.

3. **Alternative.** — (1) The **alternative conjunctions** are

neither, nor, or, either — or, neither — nor.

---

[1] The division of coördinate connectives into (1) **copulative** — joining parts in the same line of thought; (2) **adversative** — joining parts contrasted in meaning; and (3) **alternative** — joining parts so as to offer a choice, is helpful, though less so than the division of all connectives into coördinate and subordinate. It concerns the mutual relation, not of all clauses, but of clauses (1) independent or (2) equally dependent.

Some copulative connectives join clauses that sustain to each other more than the relation of mere agreement in thought; the second is (1) a **sequence** from the first, (2) a **consequence** of it, or (3) a **result**.

The **sequential clause**, according to Wrightson, "in some indefinite way follows on something just said"; as, "The father promised, *whereupon she grew cheerful.*"

The **consequential clauses** "state the logical conclusion from something just said"; as, "The ice has melted, *therefore we cannot skate.*"

The **resultant clause** "states the accidental outcome" of something just said; as, "His father gave him money, *and so he got drunk.*"

The same authority classes *so*, *so then*, *then*, *therefore*, and *whereupon* as **sequential**; *accordingly*, *consequently*, *hence*, *thence*, *therefore*, *whence*, and *whereupon* as **consequential**; *and*, *thus*, *so*, *so that*, and *and so* as **resultant**.

(2) The **alternative conjunctive adverbs** are

else, otherwise.

II. **Subordinate Connectives.—1. Of Adjective Clauses.** (1) **Conjunctive adverbs** are

when, where, whereby, wherein, why.

(2) The **relative pronouns** are

that, what, whatever, which, whichever, who, whoever.

2. **Of Adverb Clauses.** (1) The **conjunctive adverbs of time** are

after, as, before, ere, since, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst.

(2) The **conjunctive adverbs of place** are

whence, where, wherever.

(3) The **conjunctive adverbs of degree** are

as, than, that, the—the.

(4) The **conjunctive adverb of manner** is

as.

(5) The **conjunctions of real cause** are

as, because, for, since, that, whereas.

(6) The **conjunctions of evidence** are

because, for, since.

(7) The **conjunctions of purpose** are

in order that, lest, that, so that.

(8) The **conjunctions of condition** are

except, if, in case that, on condition that, provided, provided that, unless.

(9) The **conjunctions of concession** are

albeit, although, if, notwithstanding, though, whether.

(10) The **conjunctive adverb of concession** is

however.

(11) The **relative pronouns of concession** are

whatever, whichever, whoever.

3. **Of Noun Clauses.** (1) The **conjunctions** are

if, lest, that, whether.

(2) The **conjunctive adverbs** are

how, when, whence, where, why.

(3) The **pronouns** (used interrogatively) are

what, which, who.

Definitions

Coordinate conjunctions are those used to connect words, phrases, and clauses of equal rank.

Subordinate[1] conjunctions are those used to connect clauses of unequal rank.

Derivation of Conjunctions. — Some conjunctions are simple; others, compound; all, originally other parts of speech. The derivation of the more common and important of the connectives is given below.[2]

---

[1] The division of subordinate connectives into those introducing (1) adjective clauses; (2) adverb clauses; and (3) noun clauses; and the subdivision of those introducing the nine kinds of adverb clauses are useful to the student, because several of these connectives are used with clauses diverse in the relation of their thoughts. The division and the subdivision concern the several kinds of subordinacy in which the thought of one clause may stand to that of another and show the imperative need of the proper introductory connective to herald it.

[2] *Albeit* = *all-be-it*, is a sentence in one word.

Also = *all* and *so*, is from the O.E. adjective *eal*, 'all,' and adverb *swā*, 'so.'

Although = *all-though* — the *though* from the O.E. adverb *ðeāh*, 'nevertheless.'

And, once a preposition meaning *against*, as in the prefixes *a* and *an* of *along* and *answer*, became a copulative conjunction, and subsequently took on a conditional force. When, as in Shakespeare, its *if* sense had become dim, *and* (reduced to *an*) added *if* to express condition. Its *an* form and its *if* sense are now obsolete.

As is a contraction of *also*.

Because is *by* + *cause*.

Both and *either* in the correlatives *both* — *and*, *either* — *or* are the adjective pronouns.

But is from the O.E. *būtan*, *be* + *ūtan*, 'by the outside,' 'beyond.'

Except, *ex* + *capere*, 'to take out.'

Lest is from O.E. *ðȳ lǣs ðe* — the instrumental case of the demonstrative, an adjective in the comparative, and the indeclinable relative. At the dropping of *ðȳ*, *lǣs ðe* contracted into *lesthe*, *leste*, *lest*.

Neither and *nor* contain the negative particle *ne*.

Or is a contraction of *other*.

Then is the same word as *than* — O.E. *ðanne*.

That, originally a demonstrative pronoun, changed into a connective in some such way as this: "He lives, I know that"; "I know that [namely] he lives"; "I know that he lives."

Unless, *on* (*in*) + *less*.

Whether is the O.E. interrogative *hwæðer*, 'which of two.'

While is the O.E. noun *hwīl*, 'time.'

Proscribed Locutions. — We are told (1) that *whether* must not be used with more than two; (2) that *whether* must not be repeated in the sentence; (3) that *if* must not take the place of *whether* before an object noun clause; (4) that *either* and *neither* must not connect more than two; and (5) that between *other* and *than* words must not intervene. The locutions here proscribed, though not so common as the alternative ones prescribed, are abundantly sanctioned by good usage. We illustrate below.[1]

Care in the Use of Connectives. — As conjunctions and other connectives introduce phrases and clauses, much care is needed in their selection and use — a wrong connective, or the right one in the wrong place, throws from the track a large fraction of the thought. This need is accented by the fact that several connectives of the subordinate class introduce each many clauses of diverse force, for example —

as,[2] if,[2] since, when, and that.[3]

---

[1] *Whether* has slipped the etymological leash that held it to two; (1) as, "He does not know *whether* it is an *angel* or a *woman* or a *mermaid*"; *whether* may be used with one; as, "There is a different and sterner path; I know not *whether* there be any now qualified to teach it"; (2) *whether* may be used more than once in a sentence; as, "*Whether* some one element shall absorb the rest, or *whether* all shall contribute." (3) *Whether* may take *if* as a substitute, especially after the verbs *ask*, *doubt*, *know*, *see*, and *tell*; as, "*Ask* any honest robin *if* he ever ate anything less ascetic than the frugal berry of the juniper." (4) The conjunctions *either* and *neither* are everywhere found with three or more; as, "I cannot verify it *either* by *touch* or *taste* or *smell* or *hearing* or *sight*"; "Bryant's career had *neither rise* nor *height* nor *decline*." (5) *Other* and *than* are often separated by intervening words; as, "Some *other purpose than* that."

[2] *As if* and *as though* (a clause in each is supposed) are both common, but *as if* far more common than *as though*.

[3] *That* before a noun object clause is frequently omitted — its omission is to its use about as one to four.

Some errors in their choice and use are illustrated and corrected below.[1]

But that,[2] But, and That. —The use of *but that* is so peculiar and the use of *but* and *that* so various as to deserve separate treatment in the paragraphs below.[3]

---

[1] "Seldom, *if* (not *or*) ever, is time perfectly employed." "*Falstaff was not only* (not *not only Falstaff was*) witty, but the cause of wit in others." "*Not only midges* (not *midges not only*) annoy, but flies and mosquitoes also." "The charm of Tennyson, *which* (not *and which*) he has even in excess, is delicacy." "Try *to* (not *and*) be punctual." "Give me neither poverty *nor* (not *or*) riches." "The prayer of Agur was, '*Give me neither* (not *neither give me*) poverty nor riches.'" "I cannot see *either* (not *neither*) the island or the mainland." "I don't know *that* (not *as*) he said so." "A bank-bill is nothing else *than* (not *but*) a promissory note." "Spain could not do otherwise *than* (not *but*) surrender." "He no sooner saw me *than* (not *but*) he left." "James is *taller than George, but not so stout*" (not *taller, but not so stout, as George*). "James is *not so stout as George, but taller*" (not *not so stout, but taller, than George*). "*Though* (not *if*) no absolute victory be possible, a hard fight is sure to bring some success." "I went *after* or *because* I was told to go" (*since*, meaning either time or cause, would be ambiguous). "*When* (not *while*) I arrived, and *while* (not *when*) I was there, B was present." "No one denies *that* (not *but that* or *but what*) two and two are four." "Who doubts *that* (not *but that* or *but what*) there is a God?"

[2] **But that**, when it can be used, gives to the sentence a meaning which *that* does not give. "I do not fear *but that* he will go," expresses my belief that he will go; "I do not fear *that* he will go," expresses my belief that he will not go. *But that* is inadmissible after negative words—*doubt*, *deny*, etc.,—when these are preceded by a negative, or by words implying a negative—because the sentence would contain a negative verb, a negative preceding the verb, and a negative in the *but* following it. The meaning of such a sentence as, "No one denies *but that* two and two are four" is the affirmative "Every one believes that two and two are four"; but, though two negatives affirm, three do not.

[3] **But** is (1) a **preposition** — "No one knows it *but* me"; (2) an **adjective** — "Man is *but* a shadow"; (3) an **adverb** — "*But* one man escaped"; (4) an **adversative conjunction** — "Man proposes, *but* God disposes"; (5) a **subordinate conjunction** — "Not a hair falls *but* (*unless*) God knows it"; (6) a **conjunctive adverb** — "No man is so bad *but* he has some good in him."

Omission of Conjunctions. — Often the connectives are omitted; the mere position of the words, phrases, and clauses shows their connection. Their use may contribute smoothness[1] to the sentence; their omission, brevity and force. Their use or their omission sometimes affects the grammatical relation of the clauses connected.[2]

Interjections

For all we have to say of this part of speech, the student is referred to chapter IV.

That is (1) a **conjunction** of real **cause** — "I rejoice not *that* ye were made sorry but *that* ye sorrowed to repentance"; (2) a **conjunction of purpose** — "We sleep *that* the body may recruit"; (3) a **conjunction** introducing a **noun clause** — "We believe *that* we are immortal"; (4) a **conjunctive adverb** — "No one is so wise *that* he never does a foolish thing"; (5) a **relative pronoun** — "Ice *that* forms in March is porous"; (6) an **adjective pronoun** — "*That* is slate"; (7) an **adjective** — "*That* rock is slate."

Than is not a preposition; yet in such a sentence as, "*Than whom* no man is better able to speak in every land," it is followed by the objective case of *who* used idiomatically, we may suppose, for the nominative.

[1] Omit conjunctions from this sentence: "And the rain descended and the floods came and the winds blew and beat upon that house and it fell and great was the fall of it," and note the loss of smoothness.

[2] Take these six sentences for illustration: (1) "The weather is warm and moist, the harvest is promising." (2) "*Paradise Lost* is a monumental poem, it brought Milton and his heirs only eighteen pounds!" (3) "Take the color from the rose, it would still be a beautiful flower." (4) "Are you in want? Draw upon me." (5) "Take away the grandeur of his cause, Washington is only a rebel." (6) "It is raining, I hear the drops pattering upon the roof."

If sentence (1) began with *because;* (2) and (3), with *though;* (4) and (5), with *if;* and the second clause of (6), with *for*, the clauses thus introduced would become dependent — that of (1) would be a cause clause; those of (2) and (3), concessive clauses; those of (4) and (5), condition clauses; that of (6), a clause of evidence. The grammatical relation of each of the six clauses to the other in the sentence would then tally with its logical relation to it.

SUBJECTS OF THE CHAPTER, AND QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THEM

Subjects for Topical Recitation. — Conjunctions. Connectives — Coördinate, Subordinate. Derivation. Proscribed Locutions. The Use of Connectives. *But*, *That*, and *But that*. Conjunctions Omitted.

Questions. — What parts of a sentence may be compound? Complex? Conjunctions, what? What classes of other parts of speech connect? What one part of speech connects simply? Give some connectives that are conjunctions. What conjunctions may join individual words? What conjunctive phrase? What conjunctions may join sentences and paragraphs? Give connectives that are prepositions also. What ones are conjunctive adverbs? What ones are relative pronouns? One that may be a conjunction, a conjunctive adverb, or a relative pronoun. Into what two great classes may connectives be divided? The importance of the division. Coördinate connectives join what different parts of a sentence? Subordinate, what only? Must the clauses which coördinate connectives join be independent? Of what rank must the clauses be which subordinate connectives join? Coördinate connectives divided into what? These sub-classes join clauses whose thought is in what three different lines? This threefold division of coördinate connectives less important than what? Why? What does Wrightson call sequential clauses, consequential, resultant? What three kinds of subordinate clauses may subordinate connectives introduce? What kinds of adverb clauses? Why is a knowledge of this serviceable? The composition of *albeit*, *also*, *although*, *because*, *but*, *except*, and *lest*? What is said of *and*? The reason for unusual care in the use of conjunctions? The several uses of *but*? Of *that*? Of *but that*? What may the use of conjunctions give to the sentence? The omission?

Exercises. — Illustrate the proscribed locutions. Sentences with, and without, conjunctions. Illustrate the several uses of *but*, *that*, and *but that*. Illustrate the effect which the use and the omission of conjunctions have upon the grammatical relation of clauses.

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